

ONTARIO
EDUCATION REPORT,
FOR 1870.

WITH AN EXPOSITION OF THE PROVISIONS OF THE
SCHOOL LAW IMPROVEMENT ACT OF 1871,

ILLUSTRATED BY EXAMPLES OF RECENT SCHOOL LEGISLATION IN VARIOUS
COUNTRIES OF

EUROPE AND AMERICA,

BEING A REPRINT OF THE FIRST PART OF THE GENERAL REPORT
OF THE CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT OF ONTARIO,
FOR 1870.



Toronto:
PRINTED BY HUNTER, ROSE & COMPANY,
1871.

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(written by W. George Hodgins)



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PART I.

GENERAL REPORT

OF THE

CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION

FOR ONTARIO.

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ANNUAL REPORT
OF THE
Normal, Model, Grammar and Common Schools
IN ONTARIO,
FOR THE YEAR 1870.

PART I.—GENERAL REPORT.

To His Excellency the Honourable WILLIAM PEARCE HOWLAND, C. B.,
Lieutenant-Governor of the Province of Ontario:—

MAY IT PLEASE YOUR EXCELLENCY,

As required by law, I herewith present my Report on the condition of the Normal, Model, Grammar and Common Schools of the Province of Ontario for the year 1870.

I am happy to be able to state, that although the *increase* of the School Fund by local effort in 1869 was \$38,093 (\$28,622 of which was applied to *increase* the salaries of teachers)—yet the increase of the Fund for 1870 by the same local effort is \$116,938, of which \$47,515 (only \$29,000 in 1869) have been expended in increasing the salaries of teachers. The increase of pupils in the schools have been 10,088.—The whole number of pupils in the schools is 442,518. I will now give a summary view from the Statistical Tables.

I.—TABLE A.—RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE OF COMMON SCHOOL MONEYS.

Receipts.

1. The amount apportioned from the Legislative Grant was \$179,252—*increase* \$8,109. The amount apportioned for the purchase of maps, apparatus, prize and library books, was \$14,406—*increase*, \$1,327 (as against a *decrease* of \$650 in 1869).
2. The amount from *Municipal* School Assessment was \$385,284—*increase*, \$12,541.
3. The amount from *Trustees'* School Assessment was \$951,099—*increase*, \$60,265, (only \$35,300 in 1869). The amount of Trustees' Rate Bills for School fees was \$44,905—*decrease*, \$804, showing the steady decline of *rate bills*, and *increase* of *Free* Schools.
4. The amount from Clergy Reserve balances, and other sources, applied to School purposes, was \$369,416—*increase*, \$35,499, (as against a *decrease* of \$914 in 1869).
5. The *total receipts* for all Common School purposes for the year 1870 amounted to \$1,944,364, nearly two millions of dollars—*increase* over the total receipts of the preceding year, \$116,938, (as against \$38,000 *increase* in 1869).

Expenditures.

1. For salaries of teachers, \$1,222,681—*increase*, \$47,515, (\$28,600 in 1869).
2. For maps, globes, prize books and libraries, \$33,891—*increase*, \$4,265, (as against a *decrease* of \$1,500 in 1869).
3. For sites and building of school-houses, \$207,500—*increase* \$16,129, (\$5,000 in 1869).
4. For rents and repairs of school-houses, \$61,860—*increase* \$7,851, (as against a *decrease* of \$600 in 1869).
5. For school books, stationery, fuel, and other expenses, \$186,127—*increase* \$11,402
6. Total expenditure for all Common School purposes, \$1,712,060—*increase*, \$87,164 (only \$36,000 in 1869).
7. Balances of school moneys not paid at the end of the year when the returns were made, \$232,303—*increase*, \$29,774.

II.—TABLE B.—SCHOOL POPULATION, PUPILS ATTENDING COMMON SCHOOLS, . DIFFERENT BRANCHES OF INSTRUCTION.

The statute requires the returns of school population to include children between the ages 5 and 16; but it confers the *equal* right of attending the schools upon all residents in each School Division between the ages of 5 and 21 years.

1. School population (including only children between the ages of 5 and 16 years), 483,966—*increase*, 13,566.
2. Pupils between the ages of 5 and 16 years attending the schools, 420,488—*increase*, 11,304. Number of pupils of other ages attending the schools, 22,030—*decrease*, 1,216. Total number of pupils attending the schools, 442,518—*increase*, 10,088.
3. The number of *boys* attending the schools, 233,381—*increase*, 3,696. The number of *girls* attending the schools, 209,137—*increase*, 6392.
4. The number reported *indigent* pupils, 3,546—*increase*, 121.
5. The table is referred to for the reported periods of attendance of pupils, and the number in each of the several subjects taught in the schools.
6. The number reported as not attending any school, is 31,265—*decrease*, 3,395. The *decrease* under this head the preceding year was 2,392. The ratio of *decrease* is gratifying; but I hope it will rapidly advance, and that this ominous and humiliating item will soon disappear altogether through the Christian and patriotic exertions of the people at large, aided by the new amendments in the School Law on the subject of compulsory education.

III.—TABLE C.—RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS, CERTIFICATES, ANNUAL SALARIES OF TEACHERS.

1. *Number of Teachers, Male and Female.*—In the 4,566 schools reported, 5,165 teachers have been employed—*increase*, 111; of whom 2,753 are male teachers—*decrease*, 22; and 2,412 are female teachers—*increase*, 133.
2. *Religious Persuasions of Teachers.*—Under this head there is little variation. The teachers are reported to be of the following persuasions:—Church of England, 869—*increase*, 43; Church of Rome, 592—*increase*, 26; Presbyterians (of different classes), 1,589,—*increase*, 16; Methodists (of different classes), 1,509—*increase*, 39; Baptists (of different classes), 282—*decrease*, 25; Congregationalists, 76—*increase*, 13; Lutherans, 21—*increase*, 3; Quakers, 14—*decrease*, 3; Christians and Disciples, 47—*decrease*, 1; reported as Protestants, 117—*increase*, 12; Unitarians, 4—*decrease*, 4; other persuasions, 14; not reported, 31—*decrease*, 8.

N.B.—Of the 592 teachers of the Church of Rome, 356 are employed in the Public Common Schools, and 236 are teachers of Separate Schools.

3. *Teachers' Certificates.*—Total number of certificated or licensed teachers reported is 5,061—*increase*, 141; Normal School Provincial Certificates, 1st class, 319—*increase*, 60; 2nd class, 349—*increase*, 7; (no 3rd class Normal School Certificates are given); County Board Certificates of the old Standard, 1st class, 1,961—*increase*, 142; 2nd class, 2,102—

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decrease, 15 ; 3rd class, 330—decrease, 53 ; not reported as classified, 104—decrease, 30 ; certificates annulled, 11.

4. Number of schools in which the teacher was changed during the year, 667—increase, 8.

5. Number of schools which have more than one teacher, 322—increase, 18.

6. *Annual Salaries of Teachers.*—The highest salary paid to a male teacher in a *County*, \$600—the lowest, \$100 (!) ; in a *City*, the highest, \$1,000—the lowest, \$250 ; in a *Town*, the highest, \$1,000—the lowest, \$225 ; in an *Incorporated Village*, the highest, \$1,000—the lowest, \$264. The average salary of male teachers in *Counties* was \$260—of female teachers, \$187 ; in *Cities*, of male teachers, \$597—of female teachers, \$231 ; in *Towns*, of male teachers, \$482—of female teachers, \$226 ; in incorporated villages, of male teachers, \$422—of female teachers, \$190. While the increase in the number of schools reported is 41, and the increase in the number of teachers employed is 111, the increase in the number of pupils is 11,304, and the increase in aggregate sum paid teachers is \$47,515 ; there is no increase in the largest salaries paid teachers, except in towns and villages. Amongst the worst enemies to the efficiency and progress of Public School education, are those trustees and parents whose aim is to get what they mis-call a cheap teacher, and who seek to haggle down the teacher's remuneration to as near starvation point as possible, though, in reality, they are intellectually starving their own children and wasting their time by employing an inferior teacher. Business men find it to their interest to employ good clerks, as one good clerk is worth two poor ones ; and in order to obtain and retain good clerks they pay them good salaries. Experience has long shown the soundness of this business rule and practice in the employment of teachers ; yet how many trustees and parents, in school matters, abandon a rule on which not only the merchant, but the sensible farmer acts in employing labourers, preferring to give high wages for good labourers, than to give lower wages to poor labourers.

IV.—TABLE D.—SCHOOL SECTIONS, SCHOOL-HOUSES AND TITLES, SCHOOL VISITS, SCHOOL LECTURES, SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS AND RECITATIONS, TIME OF KEEPING OPEN THE SCHOOLS.

1. The whole number of *School Sections* reported, 4,639—increase, 41, chiefly in new townships. The number of schools reported as kept open is 4,566—increase, 42, these mostly in new townships.

2. *Free Schools.*—The number of schools supported entirely by rate on property under this the last year of the old regime, and which may be attended, as a matter of right, by all residents between the ages of 5 and 21 years without payment of fees, is 4,244—increase, 113. The number of schools partly free—that is, with a rate bill of twenty-five cents or less per month—is 322—decrease, 71. I may repeat here, that whether the schools are free or not depends upon the local votes of the ratepayers at their annual meetings in School Sections, and in the election of Trustees in cities, towns and incorporated villages ; but a general wish has been expressed that all the Common Schools should be made free by law. I rejoice to be able to state that after twenty years had elapsed since the question of Free Schools was first left as a subject of discussion and voting at the annual school meetings, the voice of the country which had been so fully and so repeatedly expressed on it, has at length had an utterance in the Legislature, and that, from this present year, (1871), the Public Schools of the Province of Ontario have been declared free to all residents between the ages of 5 and 21 years.

3. The number of school-houses built during the year in counties was 176, of which 59 were of brick, 24 of stone, 70 frame, and 13 log, in new townships. Only one school-house in a city is reported as having been built during the year ; 1 in towns, and none in incorporated villages. These built have been all of brick.

4. The whole number of school-houses reported is 4,590, of which 870 are brick, 428 stone, 1,888 frame, 1,406 log—decrease of the last, 63.

5. *Titles to School Sites.*—Freehold, 4,150—increase, 72 ; Leased, 312—decrease, 34 ; Rented, 102—increase, 7 ; not reported, 26.

6. *School Visits.*—By Local Superintendents, 10,448—increase, 260 ; by Clergymen, 6,724—increase, 277 ; by Municipal Councillors, 1,631—increase, 84 ; by Magistrates, 1,705

—decrease, 127 ; by Judges and Members of Parliament, 517—increase, 207 ; by Trustees, 18,724—increase, 111 ; by other persons, 36,058—increase, 419. Total School Visits, 75,807—increase, 1,231, (as against a decrease of 7,366 in 1869). I am happy to state this gratifying fact ; as it does not indicate any diminution of zeal and interest in Public School education on the part of those whose duty, and interest, and privilege it is to elevate and strengthen public opinion in this first work of civilization, and by personal presence and counsel to prompt and encourage the most indifferent parents to educate their children.

7. *School Lectures.*—By Local Superintendents, 2,764—decrease 16 ; by other persons, 290—decrease 57. Whole number of School Lectures, 3,054—decrease 73. The lectures delivered by others than Local Superintendents are, of course, voluntary ; but the law requires that every Local Superintendent (now Inspector) shall deliver, during the year, at least one lecture on education in each School Section under his charge ; and the number of School Sections reported, with schools open in them, is 4,566. There are, therefore, 1,512 School Sections, with schools open, in which the requirement of the law, in regard to delivering an educational lecture, has not been observed. The statistical table shows the counties in which this neglect of duty has occurred. The state of the weather, and the proposed change in the office of Local Superintendent, may, in some instances, have interfered with the discharge of this duty, but it can scarcely account for the failure in 1,512 School Sections. The practice of giving lectures on various subjects is becoming every year more general and popular. It would be singular, indeed, if one lecture a-year in each School Section, on some subject of educational requirement or progress, could not be made instructive and popular. It is, however, gratifying to observe that the number of visits to schools by the late Local Superintendents was equal to the requirements of the law.

8. *Time of Keeping the Schools Open.*—The average time of keeping the schools open, including the holidays, was *eleven months and four days*, in 1870. This is nearly twice the average time of keeping open the Public Schools in the States of Pennsylvania and Ohio, and about three months more than the average time of keeping them open in the States of New York and Massachusetts—arising chiefly from our making the apportionment of the School Fund to School Sections not according to population, but according to the average attendance and the time of keeping open such schools—that is according to the work done in such schools.

9. *Public School Examinations.*—The whole number of Public School Examinations was 7,097—increase 127 ; (as against a decrease of 173 in 1869), though less than two for each school. The law requires that there should be in each school a public *quarterly* examination, of which the teacher should give notice to trustees and parents of pupils, and to the school visitors (clergymen, magistrates, &c.) resident in the School Sections. I think the time has now arrived (under the new and improved system inaugurated by the School Law and Regulations of 1871), to make it my duty hereafter to withhold the apportionment of the School Fund from the schools in which this provision of the law is violated. Good teachers do not shrink from, nor are indifferent to, public examinations of their schools. They seek occasions to exhibit the results of their skill and industry ; but incompetent and indolent teachers shrink from the publicity and labour attendant on public examinations of their schools. The stimulus to progress caused by such examinations, together with tests of efficiency on the part of teachers, and of progress on the part of pupils, cannot fail to produce beneficial effects on parents, pupils and teachers, as well as on the interests of general and thorough Public School education ; and such examinations will doubtless, under the new and improved programme of studies, command a large attendance of parents, trustees, and friends of the pupils of the school.

10. *The Number of Schools holding Public Recitations* of prose or poetry by the pupils was 2,566—increase 154. This exercise should be practised in every school, (and I am glad its use is increasing), as it tends to promote habits of accurate learning by heart, improvement in reading and spelling, and is an agreeable and often amusing diversion for all parties concerned. The little episodes of such exercises in the ordinary routine of school duties exert a salutary influence upon the minds of pupils and are happy interludes in the exercises on days of public examinations ; and the more agreeable and attractive such

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exercises, as well as school examinations, can be made, the more rapid and successful will school progress become.

11. *School Prizes and Merit Cards.*—The number of schools in which prizes are reported as having been distributed to reward and encourage meritorious pupils, is 1,345—decrease, 12—though there has been an increase in the aggregate amount of prize books applied for and sent out to the schools. In every instance, as far as I can learn, where the distribution of prizes has not proved both satisfactory and beneficial, the failure may be traced to the want of intelligence or fairness, or both, in the awarding of them. In some cases it may be ascribed to the same causes which caused the violation of the law in not holding public examinations of schools—the want of competence and industry in teachers—their not attending to and recording the individual conduct and progress of each pupil, and, therefore, the absence of data essential to an impartial and intelligent judgment as to the merits of pupils. In other cases, there has been a desire to give something to every pupil without reference to either conduct or progress, in order that none may complain, thus defeating the very object of prizes, and rejecting the principle on which the true system of prizes is established, and on which the Divine Government itself is based, namely, *rewarding every one according to his works.* I may here repeat again what I have already remarked on this subject, that the hackneyed objection as to the distribution of prizes exciting feelings of dissatisfaction, envy and hatred in the minds of those who do not obtain them, is an objection against all competition, and is therefore contrary to every-day practice in all the relations of life. If the distribution of prizes is decided fairly according to merit there can be no just ground for dissatisfaction; and facilities are now provided and their employment prescribed, with a view to determine the merit of *punctuality, of good conduct, of diligence, of proficiency* on the part of each pupil during each term of the year—a four-fold motive to exertion and emulation in every thing that constitutes a good pupil and a good school. But the indifferent and flagging teacher does not wish such a pressure to be brought to bear upon his every-day teaching and attention to everything essential to an efficient school; nor does he desire the *test* of a periodical examination of his pupils by an examining committee to be applied to his teaching and management of the school. The objection that the distribution of prizes to deserving pupils excites the envy and hatred of the undeserving, is a convenient pretext to protect and permit incompetence and indifference on the part of the teacher.

But the existence of such alleged dissatisfaction is no reason for refusing rewards to punctuality, to good conduct, to diligence, to proficiency on the part of pupils. There is often great dissatisfaction on the part of unsuccessful candidates and their friends in the results of Municipal and Parliamentary elections, and the distribution of prizes by Agricultural and Horticultural Associations; but this is no argument against the value of free and elective institutions; nor does it prevent the people generally from honouring with their suffrages those on whose merits they place most value, even though they may sometimes err in their judgment. Nor do the managers of Agricultural and Horticultural Societies withhold prizes from the most successful cultivators of grains and vegetables, and fruits and flowers, because of dissatisfaction among the envious of the less diligent and less skilful farmers and gardeners.

It is the very order of Providence, and a maxim of Revelation, that the hand of the diligent maketh rich, while idleness tendeth to poverty; that to him that hath (that is, improves what he hath) shall be given, and the neglecter shall be sent empty away. Providence does not reverse its order of administration, because some persons are discontented and envious at the success of the faithful diligence and skill of others. Nor does Providence appeal alone to the transcendental motives of duty, gratitude, immortality, but presents also the motives of the life that now is, as well as of that which is to come.

I prefer the order of Providence, and the principles on which our civil institutions and all our associations for public and social improvements are conducted, to the dead-level notions of stationary teachers, and the envious murmurings of negligent pupils and their misguided friends.

An explanation of this feature of our school system will be its best justification, and evince its great importance. I therefore present it again as follows:—

A comprehensive catalogue of carefully-selected and beautiful prize books has been

prepared and furnished by the Department to Trustees and Municipalities applying for them ; and, besides furnishing the books at cost price, the Department adds one hundred per cent. to whatever amounts may be provided by Trustees and Municipal Councils to procure these prize books for the encouragement of children in their schools. A series of merit cards, with appropriate illustrations and mottoes, has been prepared by the Department, and is supplied to Trustees and Teachers at a very small charge—half the cost—and these merit cards are to be awarded daily, or more generally weekly, to pupils meriting them. One class of cards is for *punctuality* ; another for *good conduct* ; a third for *diligence* ; a fourth for *perfect recitations*. There are generally three or four prizes under each of these heads ; and the pupil or pupils who get the largest number of merit cards under each head, will, at the end of the quarter or half year, be entitled to the prize books awarded. Thus an influence is exerted upon every part of a pupil's conduct, and during every day of his school career. If he cannot learn as fast as another pupil, he can be as *punctual*, as *diligent*, and maintain as *good conduct* ; and to acquire distinction, and an entertaining and beautiful book, for *punctuality*, *diligence*, *good conduct*, or *perfect recitations* or exercises, must be a just ground of satisfaction, not only to the pupil, but also to his or her parents and friends. There are two peculiarities of this system of merit cards worthy of special notice. The one is, that it does not rest upon the comparative success of single examinations at the end of the term, or half year or year, but on the daily conduct and diligence of each pupil during the whole period, and that irrespective of what may be done or not done by any other pupil. The ill-feeling by rivalry at a single examination is avoided, and each pupil is judged and rewarded according to his merits, as exhibited in his every day school life. The second peculiarity is, that the standard of merit is founded on the *Holy Scriptures*, as the mottoes on each card are all taken from the sacred volume, and the illustrations on each card consist of a portrait of a character illustrative of the principle of the motto, and as worthy of imitation. The prize book system, and especially in connection with that of *merit cards*, has a most salutary influence upon the school discipline, upon both teachers and pupils, besides diffusing a large amount of entertaining and useful reading.

V.—TABLE E.—PRAYERS, READING OF THE SCRIPTURES IN SCHOOLS, TEXT BOOKS, MAPS, APPARATUS.

1. *Prayers and Reading of the Scriptures*.—Of the 4,566 schools reported, the daily exercises were opened and closed with prayers in 3,246 of them—increase, 119 ; and the Bible was read in 3,097—increase, 95. No child can be compelled to be present at religious instruction, reading or exercise, against the wish of his parents or guardians, expressed in writing. The religious instruction, reading and exercises, are, like religion itself, a voluntary matter with trustees, teachers, parents and guardians. The Council of Public Instruction provides facilities, even forms of prayer, and makes recommendations on the subject, but does not assume authority to *enforce* or *compel* compliance with those provisions and recommendations. In some instances the reading and prayers are according to the Roman Catholic Church ; but, generally, those exercises are Protestant. The fact that in 3,246 schools, out of 4,566, religious exercises of some kind are voluntarily practised, indicates the prevalent religious principles and feelings of the people ; although the absence of such religious exercises in a school does not, by any means, indicate the absence of religious principles or feelings in the neighbourhood of such school. There are many religious persons who think the day school, like the farm fields, the place of secular work, the religious exercises of the workers being performed, in the one case as in the other, in the household, and not in the field of labour. But as Christian principles and morals are the foundation of all that is most noble in man, and the great fulcrum and lever of public freedom and prosperity in a country, it is gratifying to see general and avowed recognition of them in the public schools.

2. *Text Books*.—In a previous annual report I explained fully the steps which had been taken and the measures adopted, not only to secure a uniform series of text books for the schools, but a uniform series of excellent Canadian text books, and the complete success of those measures. Table E shows that those text books are now all but universally used,

and also the number of schools in which each of the text books on the various subjects of instruction is used.

3. *Maps, Globes, and other Apparatus.*—The maps and globes, and most of the other apparatus used in the schools, are now manufactured in Canada, forming a new and interesting branch of Canadian manufacture. Blackboards are used in 4,504 (or nearly all) the schools—increase, 82; globes are used in 1,326 schools—increase, 43; maps are used in 3,785 schools—increase, 92. Total maps used in the schools, 28,149—increase, 1,088, (as against an increase of 250 in 1869).

VI.—TABLE F.—ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE SCHOOLS.

1. The number of Roman Catholic Separate Schools is 163—decrease during the year, 2.

2. *Receipts.*—The amount apportioned and paid by the Chief Superintendent from the Legislative Grant to Separate Schools, according to average attendance as compared with that at the Public Schools in the same Municipalities, was \$8,906—increase, \$176. The amount apportioned and paid for the purchase of maps, prize books and libraries, upon the usual condition of an equal sum being provided from local sources, was \$683—increase, 207. The amount of school rates from the supporters of Separate Schools, was \$31,845—increase, \$402. The amount subscribed by supporters of Separate Schools, and from other sources, was \$17,065—increase, 962. Total amount received from all sources was \$58,500—increase, \$1,749.

3. *Expenditures.*—For payment of teachers, \$41,738—increase, \$3,109; for maps, prize books and libraries, \$1,766—increase, \$327; for other school purposes, \$14,994—decrease, \$1,688.

4. *Pupils.*—The number of pupils reported as attending the Separate Schools, was 20,652—decrease, 34. Average attendance, 10,035—increase, 1,704.

5. The whole number of teachers employed in the Separate Schools, was 236—increase, 8; male teachers, 96—decrease, 8; female teachers, 140—increase, 16. Teachers of religious orders, male, 25—decrease, 5; female, 58—increase, 15.

6. The same table shows the branches taught in the Separate Schools, and the number of pupils in each branch; also the number of schools using maps, apparatus and blackboards.

General Remarks.—1. It is proper for me to repeat the remark, that the Public Schools of Ontario are non-denominational. Equal protection is secured to and enjoyed by every religious persuasion. No child is compelled to receive religious instruction, or attend any religious exercise or reading, against the wishes of his parents or guardians, expressed in writing. I have known no instance of proselytism in the Public Schools, nor have I received, during the year, a single complaint of interference with religious rights so fully secured by law.

2. According to the returns of the religious denominations of teachers, as given in Table C, and noted above, the number of Roman Catholic teachers of the Common Schools is 592, of whom 236 are teachers in Separate Schools. There were, therefore, 356 (increase during the year, 18) Roman Catholic teachers employed in the non-denominational Public Schools—an illustrative proof of the absence of exclusiveness in the local as well as executive administration of the school system, and for which, did the feeling exist, a plea might be made on the ground that general provision has been made for Roman Catholic Separate Schools. I may also observe, that according to the last General Census, there were 464,315 children in Ontario between the ages of 5 and 16 years. Of these, according to the proportion of Roman Catholic population, at least 70,000 must be assumed to be the children of Roman Catholic parents. Of these 70,000 Roman Catholic children, only 20,652 (not one-third of the R. C. school population) attend the Separate Schools; the other two-thirds (allowing even 10,000 as not attending any school) attend the Public Schools, in which no less than 356 Roman Catholic teachers are employed; and yet not a complaint has been made of even attempt at proselytism or interference with religious rights guaranteed by law.

VII.—TABLE G.—GRAMMAR (NOW HIGH) SCHOOLS, RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES, PUPILS, FEES, OR FREE SCHOOLS.

Receipts.—The amount of balances from the preceding year (that is, of moneys not paid in by the 31st of December, 1869), was \$11,590—increase, \$1,506. The amount of Legislative Grant for the salaries of teachers, was \$54,695—increase, \$2,592. The amount of Legislative Grant apportioned for maps, prize books, etc., was \$1,348—increase, \$558. The amount of *Municipal Grants* in support of Grammar Schools, was \$43,597—increase, \$8,193. The amount of *pupils' fees*, was \$19,375—increase, \$2,451. Balances of the preceding year and other sources, \$15,000—increase, \$4,211. Total receipts, \$145,607—increase, \$19,514.

Expenditures.—For salaries of masters and teachers, \$105,153—increase, \$8,143: for building, rents and repairs, \$20,390—increase, \$13,011; for fuel, books, and contingencies, \$8,648—increase, \$425; for maps, prize books, apparatus, and libraries, \$3,374—increase, \$1,482. Total expenditure for the year 1870, \$137,566—increase, \$23,063. Balances of moneys not paid out at the end of the year, \$8,041—decrease, \$3,549.

Number of Schools, 101—no increase.

Number of Pupils, 7,351—increase, 743—a large proportionate increase.

VIII.—TABLE H.—NUMBER OF PUPILS IN THE VARIOUS BRANCHES, AND MISCELLANEOUS INFORMATION.

This table shows both the subjects taught and the number of pupils in such subjects in each of the Grammar Schools, the names, university degree or certificate of the Head Masters, and number of teachers employed in each School.

Whole Number of Pupils in English, 7,280—increase, 789; in English Grammar, 7,091—increase, 628; in Spelling and Dictation, 6,958—increase, 891; in Reading, 6,863—increase, 939; in Composition, 4,915—decrease, 100. *Total in Latin*, 6,658—increase, 1,081; in Harkness or Arnold, 5,187—increase, 1,041; in Latin Grammar, 4,371—increase, 487; in Latin Exercises and Prose Composition, 2,467—increase, 471; in Prosody, 564—increase, 6; Reading Cæsar, 632—decrease 10; Reading Virgil, 578—decrease, 2; Reading Livy, 138—decrease, 48; Reading Ovid, 129—increase, 34; Reading Cicero, 310—increase, 53; Reading Horace, 243—increase, 37; in Verse Composition, 260—increase, 131. *Total in Greek*, 769—decrease, 89; in Harkness, 468—decrease, 30; in Greek Grammar, 579—increase, 26; in Written Exercises, 413—increase, 1; Reading Lucian, 174—decrease, 34; Reading the Anabasis, 218—decrease, 35; Reading Iliad, 153—increase, 1; Reading the Odyssey, 45—decrease, 18. *Total in French*, 2,850—increase, 434; in French Grammar, 2,586—increase, 461; in Written Exercise and Composition, 2,098—increase, 190; in French Dictation and Conversation, 786—increase, 280; Reading Voltaire's Charles XII., 693—increase, 147; Reading Corneille's Horace, 199—decrease, 42. *Total in Arithmetic*, 7,212—increase, 770. *Total in Algebra*, 3,525—increase, 464. *Total in Euclid*, 2,172—increase, 119; in the higher rules of Arithmetic, 6,115—increase, 695; in the higher rules of Algebra, 2,201—increase, 353; in Euclid, books III. and IV., 855—increase, 68; in Trigonometry or Logarithms, 651—increase, 150; in Mensuration and Surveying, 717—increase, 288; in Ancient Geography, 1,409—increase, 41; in Modern Geography, 6,631—increase, 951. *Total in History*, 5,981—increase, 763; in Ancient History, 1,275—increase, 205; in Physical Science, 1,948—increase, 267; in Christian Morals, 1,437—decrease, 50; in Civil Government, 144—increase, 62; in Writing, 6,399—increase, 730; in Book-keeping and Commercial Transactions, 1,636—increase, 97; in Drawing, 912—increase, 27; in Vocal Music, 490—decrease, 133; in Gymnastics, 431—decrease, 185; in Military Drill, 434—decrease, 404; Schools in which the Bible is used, 60—increase, 3; Schools in which there are daily prayers, 88—same as 1869; Schools under united Grammar and Common School Boards, 62—decrease, 3; number of maps in the Schools, 1,712—increase, 112; number of globes in Schools, 128—decrease, 5; number of pupils who were matriculated at any University during the year, 81—decrease, 6; number of Masters and Teachers employed in 101 Schools, 172—increase, 7.

IX.—TABLE I.—METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS.

Of late years the practical value of the science of Meteorology has been recognized by all civilized governments, and systems of simultaneous observations have been widely established, the results of which must tend to elucidate the laws which control the atmospheric phenomena. The recent establishment of the storm signal office at Washington, and its extension to this Province, show the great importance of Meteorological observations. The daily weather reports, and the "probabilities" founded on the observations, have been most valuable, instructive and interesting. The system of "drum signals" established on the English coast by the late Admiral Fitzroy, though not appreciated at first, have become a necessity, and, under the good Providence of God, have been the means of averting great destruction of life and property. The same Admiral, when head of the Meteorological Office in England, thus referred to the importance of returns of temperature, and the especial need of observations in British America:—"Tables of the mean temperature of the air in the year, and in the different months and seasons of the year, at above one thousand stations on the globe, have recently been computed by Professor Dove, and published under the auspices of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Berlin. This work, which is a true model of the method in which a great body of Meteorological facts, collected by different observers and at different times, should be brought together and co-ordinated, has conduced, as is well known, to conclusions of very considerable importance in their bearing on climatology, and on the general laws of the distribution of heat on the surface of the globe." In regard to *land stations*, Professor Dove's tables have shewn that data are still pressingly required from the British North American Possessions intermediate between the stations of the Arctic expeditions, and those of the United States; and that the deficiency extends across the whole North American continent in those latitudes, from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

The Grammar School System secures the continuous residence of a class of men, at different points, who are well qualified by education to perform the work of observation, and the law authorizes the establishment and maintenance of a limited number of stations, selected by the Council of Public Instruction, with the approval of His Excellency the Lieutenant Governor, at which daily observations are taken of barometric pressure, temperature of the air, tension of vapour, humidity of the air, direction and velocity of the wind, amount of cloudiness, rain, snow, Auroras, and other meteoric phenomena. The observations are taken at 7 a.m., 1 p.m., and 9 p.m. The instruments used have been subjected to the proper tests. Full abstracts of the daily records are sent to the Education Office monthly, in addition to a weekly report of certain observations, which is prepared for publication in any local newspaper the observer may select. Abstracts of the results for each month are regularly published in the *Journal of Education*, and the observers' reports, after strict examination, are arranged and preserved for further investigations.

In my report of 1867, the results of most of the observations were presented in the form of synchronous curves, but at the expense proved an objection, a synopsis is now given in figures. For the same reason the important notes of the observers are omitted.

I have pleasure in adding that the observer, upon the whole, discharging their duties with fidelity, and that through their exertions the materials for investigating the climatology of the Province are rapidly accumulating.

X.—TABLE K.—NORMAL AND MODEL SCHOOLS.

The recent County examinations throughout the Province have demonstrated the great value and usefulness of the Normal School. Every one of its students who were examined has acquitted himself well. The recent appointments of Dr. Carlyle and Mr. Kirkland to Masterships in the Normal School will contribute still more to its efficiency and value. As the successor of Dr. Sangster, the Rev. Dr. Davies, the new Principal, will be able effectually to sustain the high reputation which the Institution has acquired throughout the country. The whole system has been of late years brought to a degree of thoroughness and practical efficiency, even in its minutest details, that I have not witnessed in any other establishments of the kind. The standard of admission to the

Normal School has been raised much above that of former years, and therefore the entrance examination (which is always in writing) has been made increasingly severe; yet the applications for admission during the present session (August, 1871) have been 198 (larger than for some years), and the failures in examination have been 13—much less proportionally than at the commencement of previous sessions. Upwards of 90 of those admitted have been teachers. The establishment of the third mastership, with a view to give greater prominence to the subject of Natural Science, will have a most beneficial and salutary effect upon the introduction and teaching of those subjects in our Public Schools as required by the new School Act. The applications now on the books for admission to the *Model Schools*, above what can be entertained, are upwards of 600. The newly enlarged buildings for these schools will not only relieve us of this pressure, but will add greatly to the practical character and efficiency of these schools of practice in the Normal School course.

Table K contains three abstracts, the first of which gives the gross number of applications, the number that had been teachers before entering the Normal School, attendance of teachers in training, certificates, and other particulars respecting them during the twenty-one years' existence of the Normal School; the second abstract gives the counties whence the students have come; and the third gives the religious persuasions of the students.

The Table shows that of the 6,069 admitted to the Normal School (out of 6,736 applications) 2,992 of them had been teachers; and of those admitted, 3,129 were males, and 2,940 were females. Of the 3,129 male candidates admitted, 2,088 of them had been teachers; of the 2,940 female candidates admitted, 904 of them had been teachers. The number admitted the first session of 1870 was 159, the second session, 173—total, 332—of whom 220 attended both sessions. Of the whole number admitted, 137 were males, and 195 females. Of the male students admitted, 87 had been teachers; of the female students admitted, 58 had been teachers.

I think it necessary here to repeat the explanations which I have heretofore given respecting the objects and offices of the Normal and Model Schools:—

The Normal and Model Schools were *not* designed to educate young persons, but to *train teachers*, both theoretically and practically, for conducting schools throughout the Province, in cities and towns as well as townships. They are not constituted, as are most of the Normal Schools in both Europe and America, to impart the preliminary education requisite for teaching. That preparatory education is supposed to have been attained in the ordinary public or private schools. The entrance examination to the Normal School requires this. The object of the Normal and Model Schools is, therefore, to do for the teacher what an apprenticeship does for the mechanic, the artist, the physician, the lawyer—to teach him theoretically and practically how to do the work of his profession. No inducements are held out to any one to apply for admission to the Normal School, except that of qualifying himself or herself for the profession of teaching; nor are any admitted except those who in writing declare their intention to pursue the profession of teaching, and that their object in coming to the Normal School is to better qualify themselves for their profession—a declaration similar to that which is required for admission to Normal Schools in other countries. Nor is any candidate admitted without passing an entrance examination in writing, equal to what is required for an ordinary second-class certificate by a County Board.

No argumentation is any longer required to justify the establishment and operations of Normal Schools. The experience and practice of all educating countries have established their necessity and importance. The wonder now is, that while no one thinks of being a printer, a painter, or shoemaker, &c., without first learning the trade, persons have undertaken the most difficult and important of all trades or professions—that which develops mind and forms character—without any preparation for it. The demand for teachers trained in the Normal and Model Schools, and their success, is the best proof of the high appreciation of the value of their services by the country. Of course no amount of culture can supply the want of natural good sense and abilities; but training and culture double the power of natural endowments, and often give to them all their efficiency.

The Model Schools (one for boys and the other for girls), formerly limited to 150

pupils each, will, when the enlargement of the buildings is completed, admit of 100 additional pupils each. The pupils admitted are now required to pay two dollars per month, while the Public Schools of the city are free. These Schools are appendages to the Normal School, and are each under the immediate charge of teachers who have been trained in the Normal School, and are overseen and inspected by the Principal and Masters of the Normal School. The teachers-in-training in the Normal School, divided into classes, spend some time each week in the Model Schools, where they first observe how a Model School for teaching Public School subjects is organized and managed; how the pupils are classified, and how the several subjects are taught; and they at length teach themselves, as assistants, under the observation and instruction of the regularly trained teachers of the school, who also make notes, and report from day to day the attention, aptitude, power of explaining, governing, commanding attention, &c. The Principal of the Normal School includes in his instructions a series of lectures on school government, teaching, &c.; and Dr. Hodgins, the Deputy Superintendent of Education, (a member of the Bar) delivers a short course of lectures to the Normal School students on the School Law, and their duties and modes of proceeding respecting it.

XI.—TABLE L.—OTHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.

As the Public and High Schools are only a part of our educational agencies, the Private Schools, Academies and Colleges must be considered in order to form a correct idea of the state and progress of education in this Province. Table L contains an abstract of the information collected respecting these institutions. As the information is obtained and given voluntarily, it can only be regarded as an approximation to accuracy, and, of course, very much below the real facts. According to the information obtained, there are 16 Colleges (several of them possessing eminent powers), with 1,930 students; 284 Academics and Private Schools—increase 5—with 6,562 pupils—increase, 170; which were kept open 11 months, and employed 373 teachers—increase, 21. Total students and pupils, 8,492—increase, 470.

XII.—TABLE M.—FREE PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

1. This Table contains three statements; *first*, of the Municipalities which have been supplied with libraries or additions during the year, and the value and number of volumes to each; *second*, the Counties to which libraries have been supplied during the past and former years, and the value and number of volumes, and also of other public libraries; *third*, the number and subjects of volumes which have been furnished, as libraries and prize books, to the several counties each year since the commencement, in 1853, of this branch of the school system.

2. (*Statement No. 1.*) The amount expended in establishing and increasing the libraries is \$3,395—decrease, \$1,260—of which one-half has been provided from local sources. The number of volumes supplied is 5,024—decrease, 1,404, which is more than made up by the increase of 60,000 in the number of books or prizes sent out.

3. (*Statement No. 2.*) The value of Public Free Libraries furnished to the end of 1870 was \$135,525—increase, \$3,395. The number of Libraries, exclusive of subdivisions, 1,146—increase 39. The number of volumes in these libraries was 239,062—increase, 5,024.

Sunday School Libraries reported, 2,433—increase, 160. The number of volumes in these libraries was 345,855—increase, 10,870.

Other Public Libraries reported, 389—increase, 4. The number of volumes in these libraries was 174,441—increase, 404.

The total number of Public Libraries in Ontario is 3,968—increase, 203. The total of the number of volumes in these libraries is 759,358—increase during the year, 16,298 volumes.

4. (*Statement No. 3.*) This important statement contains the number and classification of public libraries and prize books which have been sent out from the Depository of the Department from 1853 to 1870 inclusive. The total number of volumes for Public Free Libraries sent out, 242,672. The classification of these books is as follows:—*History*,

42,193 ; *Zoology and Physiology*, 15,275 ; *Botany*, 2,811 ; *Phenomena*, 6,108 ; *Physical Science*, 4,772 ; *Geology*, 2,077 ; *Natural Philosophy and Manufactures*, 13,152 ; *Chemistry*, 1,540 ; *Agricultural Chemistry*, 794 ; *Practical Agriculture*, 9,592 ; *Literature*, 23,272 ; *Voyages*, 20,989 ; *Biography*, 27,977 ; *Tales and Sketches*, *Practical Life*, 68,153 ; *Fiction*, 1,015 ; *Teachers' Library*, 2,952. Total number of *Prize Books* sent out, 503,449. Grand total of library and prize books (including, but not included in the above, 14,379 volumes sent to Mechanics' Institutes and Sunday Schools, paid for wholly from local sources), 759,884.

5. In regard to the Free Public Libraries, it may be proper to repeat the explanation that these libraries are managed by Local Municipal Councils and School Trustees (chiefly by the latter), under regulations prepared according to law by the Council of Public Instruction. The books are procured by the Education Department, from publishers both in Europe and America, at as low prices for cash as possible ; and a carefully-prepared classified catalogue of about 4,000 works (which, after examination, have been approved by the Council of Public Instruction) is printed, and sent to the Trustees of each School Section, and the Council of each Municipality. From this select and comprehensive catalogue the local municipal and school authorities desirous of establishing and increasing a library select such works as they think proper, or request the Department to do so for them, and receive from the Department not only the books at prices about from twenty-five to thirty per cent. cheaper than the ordinary retail prices, but an apportionment in books of 100 per cent. upon the amount which they provide for the purchase of such books. None of these works are disposed of to any private parties, except Teachers and School Inspectors, for their professional use ; and the rule is not to keep a large supply of any one work on hand, so as to prevent the accumulation of stock, and to add to the catalogue yearly new and useful books which are constantly issuing from the European and American Press. There is also kept in the Department a record of every public library, and of the books which have been furnished for it, so that additions can be made to such libraries without liability to send second copies of the same books.

XIII.—TABLE N.—SUMMARY OF THE MAPS, APPARATUS, AND PRIZE BOOKS SUPPLIED TO THE COUNTIES, CITIES, TOWNS AND VILLAGES DURING THE YEAR.

1. The amount expended in supplying maps, apparatus, and prize books for the schools, was \$28,810—increase, \$4,345. The one-half of this sum was provided voluntarily from local sources ; in all cases the books or articles are applied for and fifty per cent. of the value paid for by the parties concerned before being sent. The number of Maps of the World sent out was 136 ; of Europe, 221 ; of Asia, 185 ; of Africa, 164 ; of America, 180 ; of British North America and Canada, 238 ; of Great Britain and Ireland, 188 ; of Single Hemispheres, 153 ; of Scriptural and Classical, 135 ; of other charts and maps, 269 ; of globes, 109 ; of sets of apparatus, 62 ; of other pieces of school apparatus, 612 ; of Historical and other Lessons, in sheets, 5,880. Number of volumes of *prize books*, 60,655.

2. It may be proper to repeat that the map, apparatus, and prize book branch of the School System was not established till 1855. From that time to the end of 1870 the amount expended for maps, apparatus, and prize books (not including Public Libraries), was \$293,043, one-half of which has been provided from local sources, from which all applications have been made. The number of Maps of the World furnished is 2,451 ; of Europe, 3,822 ; of Asia, 3,086 ; of Africa, 2,851 ; of America, 3,231 ; of British North America and Canada, 3,593 ; of Great Britain and Ireland, 3,688 ; of Single Hemispheres, 2,548 ; of Classical and Scriptural Maps, 2,628 ; other maps and charts, 5,444 ; globes, 1,942 ; sets of apparatus, 411 ; single articles of school apparatus, 14,615 ; Historical and other Lessons in sheets, 154,212 ; volumes of *Prize Books*, 503,449.

3. I also repeat the following explanation of this branch of the Department :—The maps, globes, and various articles of school apparatus sent out by the Department, apportioning one hundred per cent. upon whatever sum or sums are provided from local sources, are nearly all manufactured in Ontario, and at lower prices than imported articles of the same kind have been heretofore obtained. The globes and maps manufactured (even the material) in Ontario contain the latest discoveries of voyagers and travellers, and are executed in the best manner, as are tellurians, mechanical powers, numeral

frames, geometrical powers, &c., &c. All this has been done by employing competitive private skill and enterprise. The Department has furnished the manufacturers with copies and models, purchasing certain quantities of the articles when manufactured, at stipulated prices, then permitting and encouraging them to manufacture and dispose of these articles themselves to any private parties desiring them, as the Department supplies them only to municipal and school authorities. In this way new domestic manufactures are introduced, and mechanical and artistical skill and enterprise are encouraged, and many aids to school and domestic instruction, heretofore unknown amongst us, or only attainable in particular cases with difficulty, and at great expense, are now easily and cheaply accessible to private families, as well as to municipal and school authorities all over the country. It is also worthy of remark, that this important branch of the Education Department is self-supporting. All the expenses of it are reckoned in the cost of the articles and books procured, so that it does not cost either the public revenue or school fund a penny beyond what is apportioned to the Municipalities and School Sections providing a like sum or sums for the purchase of books, maps, globes, and various articles of school apparatus. I know of no other instance, in either the United States or in Europe, of a branch of a Public Department of this kind conferring so great a benefit upon the public, and without adding to public expense.

The following Tables will also be found of much interest in connection with this part of our School System.

TABLE SHEWING THE VALUE OF ARTICLES SENT OUT FROM THE EDUCATION DEPOSITORY DURING THE YEARS 1851 TO 1870, INCLUSIVE.

YEAR.	Articles on which the 100 per cent. has been apportioned from the Legislative Grant.		Articles sold at Catalogue prices without any apportionment from the Legislative Grant.	Total value of Library, Prize and School Books, Maps and Apparatus despatched.
	Public School Library Books.	Maps, Apparatus and Prize Books.		
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1851.....			1,414	1,414
1852.....			2,981	2,981
1853.....			4,233	4,233
1854.....	51,376		5,514	56,890
1855.....	9,947	4,655	4,389	18,991
1856.....	7,205	9,320	5,726	22,251
1857.....	16,200	18,118	6,452	40,770
1858.....	3,982	11,810	6,972	22,764
1859.....	5,806	11,905	6,679	24,389
1860.....	5,289	16,832	5,416	27,537
1861.....	4,084	16,251	4,894	25,229
1862.....	3,273	16,194	4,844	24,311
1863.....	4,022	15,887	3,461	23,370
1864.....	1,931	17,260	4,454	23,645
1865.....	2,400	20,224	3,818	26,442
1866.....	4,375	27,114	4,172	35,661
1867.....	3,404	28,270	7,419	39,093
1868.....	4,420	25,923	4,793	35,136
1869.....	4,655	24,475	5,678	34,808
1870.....	3,396	28,810	6,175	38,381

BOOK IMPORTS INTO ONTARIO AND QUEBEC.

The following Statistical Table has been compiled from the "Trade and Navigation Returns" for the years specified, showing the gross value of books (not maps or school apparatus) imported into Ontario and Quebec.

YEAR.	Value of Books entered at Ports in the Province of Quebec.	Value of Books entered at Ports in the Province of Ontario.	Total value of Books imported into the two Provinces.	Proportion imported for the Education Department of Ontario.
1850.....	\$101,880	\$141,700	\$243,580	384
1851.....	120,700	171,732	292,432	3,396
1852.....	141,176	159,268	300,444	1,288
1853.....	158,700	254,280	412,980	22,764
1854.....	171,452	307,808	479,260	44,060
1855.....	194,356	338,792	533,148	25,624
1856.....	208,636	427,992	636,628	10,308
1857.....	224,400	309,172	533,572	16,028
1858.....	171,255	191,942	363,197	10,692
1859.....	139,057	184,304	323,361	5,308
1860.....	155,604	252,504	408,108	8,845
1861.....	185,612	344,621	530,233	7,782
1862.....	183,987	249,234	433,221	7,800
1863.....	194,652	276,673	461,325	4,085
of 1864.....	3,308	127,233	220,541	4,668
1864-5.....	199,386	200,364	399,690	9,522
1865-6.....	222,559	247,749	470,308	14,749
1866-7.....	233,837	273,615	507,452	20,743
1867-8.....	224,582	254,048	478,630	12,374
1868-9.....	278,914	373,758	652,672	11,874
1869-1870.....	220,371	361,171	571,542	13,019

XIV.—TABLE O.—SUPERANNUATED AND WORN-OUT TEACHERS OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.*†

1. This table shows the age and service of each pensioner, and the amount which he receives. The system, according to which aid is given to worn-out Public School teachers, is as follows:—In 1853 the Legislature appropriated \$2,000, which it afterwards increased to \$4,000 per annum, in aid of superannuated or worn-out Public School teachers. The allowance cannot exceed \$6 annually for each year the recipient has taught school in Ontario. Each recipient must pay a subscription to the Fund of \$4 for the current year, and \$5 for each year since 1854, if he has not paid his \$4 any year; nor can any teacher share in the fund unless he pays annually at that rate, commencing at the time of his beginning to teach, or with 1854 (when the system was established) if he began to teach before that time. When a teacher omits his annual subscription, he must pay at the rate of \$5 for that year in order to be entitled to share in the fund when worn out. When the fund is not sufficient (as it never has been since the first year of its administration) to pay each pensioner the full amount permitted by law, it is then divided among the claimants according to the number of years each one has taught. To secure equality, each claimant is paid in full the first year, less the amount of his subscriptions required by law to be paid.

2. It appears from the Table that 256 have been admitted to receive aid, of whom 125 have died, have not been heard from, or have ceased teaching, or have withdrawn from the fund before or during the year 1870, the amount of their subscriptions having been returned to them.

3. The average age of each pensioner in 1870 was 68 years; the average length of time of service in Ontario was 21 years. No time is allowed applicants except that which has been spent in teaching a Public School in Ontario; though their having taught School many years in England, Ireland, Scotland, or the British Provinces, has induced

* Estimate. † NOTE.—I have fully discussed the provisions of the new law on this subject in a subsequent part of my report.

the Council, in some instances, to admit applicants to the list of worn-out Public School teachers after teaching only a few years in this Province, which would not have been done had the candidate taught, altogether, only a few years of his life.

4. My report in former years contained the names of the parties on whose testimony the application in regard to each case was granted, together with the county of each pensioner's residence. That part of the table has been omitted in my last reports to save the expense of printing, though the record is preserved in the Department for reference, if occasion require.

XV.—TABLE P.—EDUCATIONAL SUMMARY FOR 1870.

This table exhibits, in a single page, the number of Educational Institutions of every kind, as far as I have been able to obtain returns, the number of students and pupils attending them, and the amount expended in their support. The whole number of these institutions in 1870 was 4,970—*increase*, 47; the whole number of students and pupils attending them was 459,161—*increase*, 11,001; the total amount expended for all educational purposes was \$2,173,711—*increase*, \$113,927. The total amount available for educational purposes was \$2,414,056—*increase*, \$140,152.

XVI.—TABLE Q.—GENERAL STATISTICAL ABSTRACT OF THE PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN ONTARIO, FROM 1842 TO 1869 INCLUSIVE.

It is only by comparing the number and character of Educational Institutions at different periods, the number of pupils attending them, and the sums of money provided and expended for their support, that we can form a correct idea of the educational progress of a country. The statistics for such comparisons should be kept constantly before the public mind to prevent erroneous and injurious impressions, and to animate to efforts of further and higher advancement.

Congratulations have often been expressed at the great improvements which have been made in all our institutions of education, in regard both to the subjects and methods of teaching, as in the accommodations and facilities of instruction; also in the number of our Educational Institutions, in attendance upon them, and in the provision for their support. But it is only by analyzing and comparing the statistics contained in "Table Q, that a correct and full impression can be formed of what has been accomplished educationally in Ontario during the last twenty years. Take a few items as examples. From 1848 to 1870 the number of Public Schools has been increased from 2,800 to 4,403, and the number of pupils attending them from 130,739 to 421,866. The amount provided for the support of Public Schools has been increased since 1848 from \$344,276 to \$1,222,681, besides the amount provided for the purchase, erection, repairs of school-houses, etc., of which there are no reports earlier than 1850, but which at that time amounted to only \$56,753, but which in 1870 amounted to \$489,380—making the aggregate for Public School purposes in 1870 \$1,712,061. Then the number of free schools since 1850 has increased from 252 to 4,244; to which are to be added the Normal and Model Schools, the system of uniform text-books, maps, globes, apparatus (of domestic manufacture), prize books and public libraries.

XVII. THE EDUCATIONAL MUSEUM.

Nothing is more important than that an establishment designed especially to be the institution of the people at large—to provide for them teachers, apparatus, libraries, and every possible agency of instruction—should, in all its parts and appendages, be such as the people can contemplate with respect and satisfaction, and visit with pleasure and profit. While the schools have been established, and are so conducted as to leave nothing to be desired in regard to their character and efficiency, the accompanying agencies for the agreeable and substantial improvement of all classes of students and pupils, and for the useful entertainment of numerous visitors from various parts of the country, as well as

many from abroad, have been rendered as attractive and complete as the limited means furnished would permit. Such are the objects of the Educational Museum.

The Educational Museum is founded after the example of what has been done by the Imperial Government as part of the system of popular education—regarding the indirect as scarcely secondary to the direct means of forming the taste and character of the people.

It consists of a collection of school apparatus for Public and High Schools, of models of agricultural and other implements, of specimens of the natural history of the country, casts of antique and modern statues and busts, &c., selected from the principal museums in Europe, including the busts of several of the most celebrated characters in English and French history; also, copies of some of the works of the great masters in Dutch, Flemish, Spanish, and especially of the Italian schools of painting. These objects of art are labelled for the information of those who are not familiar with the originals, but a descriptive historical catalogue of them is in course of preparation. In the evidence given before the Select Committee of the British House of Commons, it is justly stated that "the object of a National Gallery is to improve the public taste, and afford a more refined description of enjoyment to the mass of the people;" and the opinion is at the same time strongly expressed that as "people of taste going to Italy constantly bring home beautiful copies of beautiful originals," it is desired, even in England, that those who have not the opportunity or means of travelling abroad, should be enabled to see, in the form of an accurate copy, some of the works of Raffaele and other great masters; an object no less desirable in Canada than in England. What has been thus far done in this branch of public instruction is in part the result of a small annual sum which, by the liberality of the Legislature, has been placed at the disposal of the Chief Superintendent of Education, out of the Ontario Educational Grants, for the purpose of improving school architecture and appliances, and to promote art, science and literature, by the means of models, objects and publications, collected in a Museum connected with the Department.

The more extensive Educational Museum at South Kensington, London, established at great expense by the Committee of Her Majesty's Privy Council of Education, appears, from successive reports, to be exerting a very salutary influence, while the School of Art connected with it is imparting instruction to hundreds in drawing, painting, modelling, &c.

A large portion of the contents of our museum has been procured with a view to the School of Art, which has not yet been established, though the preparations for it are completed. But the Museum has been found a valuable auxiliary to the schools; the number of visitors from all parts of the country, as well as from abroad, has greatly increased during the year, though considerable before; many have repeated their visits again and again; and I believe the influence of the Museum quite corresponds with what is said of that of the Educational Museum of London.

The means employed for improving the Museum during the last two years were detailed in my last Annual Report; and the additions, made at a comparatively small expense, are of great variety and value.

XVIII.—REPORT OF THE INSPECTOR OF GRAMMAR (NOW HIGH) SCHOOLS.

I beg to direct special attention to the practical and excellent Report of the Inspector of Grammar (now High) Schools, which will be found in Appendix A. The Report of the Inspector (the Rev. J. G. D. Mackenzie, M. A.) this year, as in former years, is alike kind and faithful, and is replete with practical remarks and suggestions; it points out clearly the defects of many, both High and Public Schools, and shows clearly in the interests of higher English, as well as of sound classical education, the necessity of the revival of the system, as contemplated by the principal provisions of the High School Bill, which were adopted this year by the Legislative Assembly. I am glad that, under the new Act, the principle of apportioning the High School Fund, according to *results* of teaching, and not merely according to numbers, will be carried out.

XIX.—EXTRACTS FROM REPORTS OF LOCAL SUPERINTENDENTS OF COMMON SCHOOLS.

In most school reports both in Great Britain and the neighbouring States, a large space is devoted to extracts from local reports, as illustrating the practical working of the system, the inner and practical life of the people in their social relations and development

—the intelligent and noble struggles of some new settlements to educate their children, and the shameful negligence of some old settlements in regard to the education of their children.

Character of these Reports.—It was thought desirable this year, with a view to save expense, to omit most of the usual extracts from the reports of Local Superintendents of townships, cities, towns, and incorporated villages. But the extracts, among other things above noticed, establish the following facts:—

1. *Apathy and Selfishness a cause of Backwardness.*—That the inefficiency and stationary condition of the schools in many places does not arise from any complained of defects in the School Law or system, but in most instances from the apathy and misguided selfishness of the parties concerned—in a few instances from the newness and poverty of the settlements.

2. *Spirit and Enterprise of Old and New Townships contrasted.*—That, on the contrary, the gratifying advancement of the schools in other places does not depend upon the age or wealth of the settlement, but upon the spirit of the people. Some of the oldest settlements of the Province in the River and Lake Townships of the County of Welland, and on the River St. Lawrence, are far behind the greater part of the newer townships.

3. *Eastern and Western parts of Ontario compared.*—That, as a general rule, the Eastern section of Ontario, East of Kingston—the County of Lanark excepted—are far less advanced and far less progressive than the Western part of the Province, except some old townships on the Rivers Niagara and Detroit, and on Lake Erie. This will be strikingly seen on reference to the library map published in my report of a previous year.

4. *Best Teachers the Cheapest.*—That the best made shoes, and waggons, and fences, and farm tools are the most serviceable and cheapest in the long run, so the best teachers, and school-houses and furniture, are by far the cheapest, as well as the most profitable for all parties and all the interests of education and knowledge.

5. *Evils of the "Cheap" Teachers.*—That the most serious obstacles to the education of children in many parts of the country are bad school-house accommodation, and the employment of incompetent and mis-called "cheap" teachers; the only remedy for which is requiring proper school-house accommodation, doing away with the lowest class of teachers, and prescribing a minimum teacher's salary which will secure the employment and continuance in the profession of competent teachers. This is what the country, as a whole, owes to itself, as well as to the helpless and injured youthful members of it.

6. *Competitive Examinations and Prizes.*—That competitive examinations of schools, and the distribution of prizes to reward and encourage *punctuality, good conduct, diligence and perfect recitations* of pupils, form a powerful element for improving the schools, and animating teachers and pupils to exertion. In all the local reports, there is scarcely a dissenting voice as to the salutary influence of distributing prizes as an encouragement and reward to meritorious pupils in the schools. The two or three instances in which a doubt as to their beneficial influence has been expressed, have been where the prizes have been distributed in an exceptional manner—by the teacher alone, or upon the single ground of cleverness or success at final examinations, and not embracing rewards also for *punctuality, good conduct, diligence* (as suggested and provided for by the four classes of merit cards), as well as for perfect recitations. The testimony is unanimous and unqualified as to the very beneficial influence upon teachers and pupils of competitive examinations among the pupils of the several schools of a township. The two-fold objection heretofore urged in a few instances is now seldom repeated, namely, that the distribution of prizes is not an appeal to the high motives of *duty*, but to the lower motive of selfishness, as if the Bible does not from beginning to end urge the motive of reward as well as of duty upon human beings of all ranks and ages; and, secondly, that of discriminating between pupils and rewarding the meritorious excites jealousy and hatred in the minds of the undistinguished and unrewarded—an objection according to the principle of which, punctual, well conducted, diligent and successful men in life ought not to be rewarded by any respect or notice, or increase of wealth, over the negligent, lazy and worthless, lest the latter should envy the former! Whereas the principle of Providence as well as of Revelation is, that the hand of the diligent maketh rich, while idleness tendeth to poverty, and that every man—in childhood as well as in manhood—shall be rewarded according to his works.

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XX.—GENERAL REMARKS ON THE SCHOOL LAW IMPROVEMENT ACT OF 1871.

PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS.

So many and important have been the changes recently made in the law affecting our System of Public Instruction, that it may be well, as a preliminary to a discussion of those changes, briefly to refer to a few facts relating to the history and progress of our School System.

In 1844, when I had the honour to take charge of the Education Department, our municipal system (on which our then elementary School Law was engrafted), was in its infancy. The principle of local self government was new, and much opposition was experienced in giving effect to the School Law then in operation. The theory of local taxation for the support of schools was in some places vigorously opposed, and in others regarded as a doubtful experiment. Even as late as 1850, some municipalities refused to accept the improved law enacted that year, or act under its provisions, and thus deprived their constituents of the great boon of popular education. It is only six years since the last disability, caused by such refusal, was removed,—thus uniting the entire Province in a cordial acceptance of the School Law.

The following brief statistical references will illustrate the growth and prosperity of our School System :—

In 1844, there were but 2,610 Public Schools, in 1870, there were 4,566. In that year, (1844), the school population was 183,539—of which 96,756 children attended the Public Schools, while 86,783 (or nearly as many more) were reported as not in attendance at any school whatever.

In 1870, the school population was 483,966—of which 420,488 children were in attendance in our schools, and 63,478 reported as not in attendance—not one-seventh, instead of nearly one-half of the children of School age, as in 1844. In 1844, the whole sum available for the support of the Public Schools was about \$280,000—of which, approximately, \$190,000 were raised by local taxation.* In 1870, the whole sum available for Public Schools was \$1,712,060—of which \$1,336,383 were raised by local taxation and fees—an increase of more than seven hundred per cent over 1844!

Such are the three main facts illustrative of the progress of our Public School System during the last quarter of a century. Those who are familiar with our educational history during that period will remember the fierce opposition which some of what are now regarded as the essential features of our School Law encountered; but yet, under the Divine blessing, our schools and School System have, nevertheless, so steadily progressed and prospered, that there are few Canadians who do not now refer with unmixed pride and satisfaction to the vastly improved condition of our Public Schools under the operation of the present law, as revised in 1850.† On no one point have we greater cause for thankfulness and congratulation, than in the fact of the unanimity and cordiality with which our School System is supported by all classes of the community, by men of all shades of political feeling, and, with a single exception (and that in part only), of all religious persuasions in the Province.

OBJECTIONS TO IMPROVE OUR SCHOOL SYSTEM ANSWERED.

It is a singular and gratifying (yet in some respect it has proved an embarrassing) fact that the chief difficulty experienced in promoting the improvement of our School System has arisen from the somewhat over-sensitiveness of the friends of our Schools, lest the proposed changes should disturb the foundations of a system which they had learned to regard with so much favour and affection. This solicitude arose partly from a mistaken

* NOTE.—In 1850, (the first year in which we have positive information on this subject), we find that the total sum expended in this Province for public elementary education, was \$410,472; of which \$326,472 were raised by local rates and fees.

† NOTE.—No one is more sensible than I am of the numerous defects of our School system, and for this reason I have laboured all the more assiduously to have these defects removed by our recent School Legislation. As I have stated further on, I have even had to combat the views of those friends of the system who had thought that it was not susceptible of much improvement.

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view of the condition and necessities of our system, and partly from a misapprehension of the scope and objects of the proposed ameliorations in our School Law. It will be my aim, however, in the following remarks to justify and illustrate the principles and policy involved in the recent important changes which have been made in our School Law.

I would, in the first place, remark that were we, in making improvements in our School System, to confine our observation and experience to our own Province alone, we might be disposed to look with complacency upon that system, and to rest satisfied with the progress which we have already made. The effect of such a state of feeling would be that we would seek to profit little by the educational experience and advancement of other countries. But such a short-sighted and unpatriotic course, though approved by some on the principle of "let well-alone," yet would not commend itself to the maturer judgment of those who are accustomed to look at the "stern logic of facts," and to take a comprehensive and practical view of the underlying causes of the social progress in other countries.

We are a young country, placed in close proximity to a large and wonderfully progressive people. In the good providence of God, we are permitted to construct on the broad and deep foundations of British liberty, the corner stone of a new nationality, leaving to those who come after us to raise the stately edifice itself. Apart from the vital Christianity of our people, what more lasting bond and cement of society in that new nationality, than a free and comprehensive system of Christian education for the youth of the land, such as we have sought to establish? Our aim should, therefore, be to make that system commensurate with the wants of our people, in harmony with the progressive spirit of the times, and comprehensive enough to embrace the various branches of human knowledge which are now continually being called into requisition in the daily life of the farmer, the artisan, and the man of business. In no department of social and national progress have our neighbours made greater advances, or prided themselves more justly, than in that of free popular education. On the other hand, in no feature of progress under British institutions up to a late period has there been less satisfaction, as a whole, or less positive advancement than in that of public education. By many of our neighbours on the other side of the lines, such inertness and non-appreciation of a vital part of national life has been regarded as inherent in monarchical institutions. The fact, however, has been overlooked that the lingering effects of the long prevalence in Britain of the feudal theory, on which her social and political institutions were originally founded, has, in spite of various ameliorations in the condition of her people, exercised a sure but silent influence against the earlier adoption of the principle of the free and universal education of the people. But so surely and certainly has this latent feeling of opposition to popular education given way before the prevalence of more enlightened views, that, even in the most monarchical countries of Europe, the desire felt and the efforts put forth for the diffusion of public education in all its comprehensiveness and fulness have been remarkable. Nevertheless, even among ourselves, that principle of latent opposition to popular education did exist in the earlier stages of our educational history. Its gradual removal, therefore, under the beneficent operation of our School Laws, and the prevalence of juster and more patriotic views in matter of education are subjects of sincere congratulation to our people.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN OTHER COUNTRIES.

It will be my object briefly to refer to the educational progress of other countries, so far as they illustrate the necessity for improvements in our own laws, and then in the light of such facts and references, discuss the recent improvements and amelioration which have been made in our own School System.

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF PRUSSIA.

As one of the incidents of our educational history, it will be remembered how vehemently the so called "Prussian despotism" of certain features of our School System of twenty years ago was denounced by an influential section of the press. Yet the facts of our subsequent experience have shown how utterly futile were these objections; and so it will be in regard to those portions of our new law which have lately been equally the

objects of similar opposition and misrepresentation. Even in regard to the very Prussian system of education, so strongly objected to at one time in this Province, the history of Prussia during the last few years has demonstrated how sagacious and wise were those provisions of her school law which were professedly regarded as the most objectionable. In the recent report (1868) of the third and latest of Her Majesty's Commissions, appointed to complete the educational enquiry, instituted years before, we have the following "Estimate of the Prussian System of Schools."

"When we view it as a whole, the Prussian system appears to be at once the most complete and the most perfectly adapted to its people of all that now exist. It is not wanting in the highest cultivation like the American, nor in dealing with the mass of the middle classes like our own; nor does it run any risk of sacrificing everything else to intellectual proficiency like the French. It is somewhat more bureaucratic in its form than would work well in England, but it is emphatically not a mere centralized system in which the government is everything. In France the central government is undeniably distinct from the people; supported by the people no doubt, and obeyed by them, but distinct from them. *But in Prussia the Education Department is simply the instrument which the people use to procure the fulfilment of their own desires.* The Prussians believe in culture, and, whoever may have originally created the educational machinery, that machinery has now been appropriated by the people themselves. They are proud of their schools, and will not allow the Government 'to sacrifice them to any other interests, and however greatly political considerations may be paramount in other departments of administration, in this they are not.' The result is an unrivalled body of teachers, schools meeting every possible need of every class, and a highly cultivated people."

Every enlightened country in Europe is at this moment disposed to learn lessons of educational wisdom from Prussia. England has not failed within the last year or two to profit largely by her experience; and even Austria herself, which Prussia humbled in the dust, has hastened to adapt to her own circumstances and, within a year or two, has put in force a comprehensive system of education, founded on that of her rival and conqueror.

THE NEW SCHOOL LAW OF AUSTRIA.

It has been said that the Prussian Common School fought and won the decisive battle of Sadowa; that while the physique of the flower of Austria's troops which fell in that memorable battle was superior to that of the Prussians, yet their skill and intelligence was greatly inferior. And, although, in the unparalleled success of the Germans in France, the same disparity on either side may not have been so marked, yet in the ample preparation, the perfectness of detail, the wonderful skill and intelligent resource of the Prussians in every emergency, they excited the wonder and astonishment of both Europe and America.* And while England has promptly sought to profit by the military experience of Prussia, and recently on the plains of Hampshire has sought to demonstrate the falsity of the alleged facts and theory of the apocryphal "Battle of Dorking," Austria has set herself carefully to study the latent causes of the vast intelligent superiority of her late foe and rival. Within the last year or two she has enacted a most comprehensive School Law, a summary of which is thus given in the last Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1870, as follows:—

"One of the greatest benefits yet conferred upon the working classes of Austria is

* NOTE.—This point is very forcibly put by Dr. Lyon Playfair, in his address as President of the Education Section of the Social Science Congress of 1870. He says:

"Prussia has lately shown what education can achieve in the union and advancement of a people. Even in the least productive of arts—that of war—see how she is served by the universal education of the soldiers. In England, the conception of a soldier is that of a mere obedient tool in the hands of an Officer; the Prussian conception is that a soldier should not only be obedient, but also self intelligent. *Trusting to this intelligence, maps of the invaded district were distributed among the privates who have the main Geographical features thoroughly explained to them, so that every private can co-operate intelligently with his General.* In the present war we have been startled to hear of large bodies of French soldiers cut off by losing their way in their own country. *No German losses from such ignorance are recorded.* In fact, two countries in these days are not fairly matched in war, whatever may be the personal valour of their inhabitants, when one, like France, has 28 per cent. (more than one fourth) of her soldiers unable to read and write, while the other, like Germany, has not 3 per cent. Knowledge is as important as valour in modern combats."

"the general School Bill of the 14th of May, 1869, which renders national education compulsory, and greatly elevates the standard of it. In accordance with this law, compulsory attendance at school begins with every child at the age of six, and is continued uninterruptedly to the age of fourteen. But even then (that is to say at the end of his fourteenth year), the child is only allowed to leave school on production of certified proof that he has thoroughly acquired the full amount of information which this great law fixes as the *sine qua non* minimum of education for every Austrian citizen. The prescribed educational course comprises reading, writing and arithmetic; a sound knowledge of the native language, history, and chiefly, though not exclusively, that of the native country, embracing the political constitution and general social structure of it; geography in the same sense, all the more important branches of physical science, geometry, geometrical drawing, &c., singing, athletic exercises. Children employed in the large factories, or prevented by special circumstances from attending the communal school, may complete or continue their education at any special school supported by their employer, and the employers are authorized to found schools for that purpose. But it is a *sine qua non* condition that all such schools shall provide the full amount and quality of education required by law, and otherwise fulfil all the obligations prescribed by the general School Bill, which subjects every school, whether private or public, to the inspection of the State. In places where a special trade school exists, the employer is bound to send his apprentices to it. In addition to the subjects of instruction above enumerated, every child is simultaneously provided with religious instruction in the creed to which he or she is born. The local ecclesiastical authorities or notables of the church or religious community to which each child belongs are entitled, and indeed bound, by law to provide competent teachers for this purpose. The free selection of the teachers is left entirely to these religious bodies, subject only to the certified proofs which the State exacts of the teacher's proficiency and general character. It is only in the event of the local religious communities declining to avail themselves of the privilege allotted to them by the law, that the State steps in and undertakes the duty which they refuse to discharge. But this religious instruction, which is altogether denominational and on a footing of impartial equality for all religious sects, is kept by the State carefully apart from the secular education, which is, in every case, obligatory, and which it is in no case allowed to interfere with or attempt to control. Nor are any private schools tolerated by the government which do not efficiently provide the prescribed amount of secular instruction; although, so long as this condition be fulfilled, the law imposes no limit to the foundation of private educational establishments. Such is the education now provided in Austria for every child of the working classes."

THE FRENCH SYSTEM OF EDUCATION.

The English Commissioners, already quoted, say:—

"The French system, as judged from an English point of view, appears to have the merit of being a perfect piece of machinery for the cultivation of the intellect. On the moral side it seems to be weak, and there are some appearances of its having a deficiency just like our own, namely, in the education put within the reach of the superior artisans and smaller shopkeepers. The Schools are of two chief grades—first, the Primary; secondly, the Colleges Communaux and Lycees. In arithmetic, mathematics, and natural science in the French Schools, we are much inferior. They know their own literature better than our boys know ours. The real advantage which they have is, that, though their classical culture is not carried so far, the boys are more generally brought up to the mark in all their studies. There are two main reasons for this: the careful preparation of their teachers for their profession, and the system of supervision. Nothing can exceed the care with which the teachers are fitted for their work. The best come from the great Normal School at Paris. This School, at which board, lodging, and instruction are all free, is filled from the Lycees by competition among all those who wish to enter the profession. The very élite of the students being thus got together, are taught by the best professors in France, with a perpetual view to their becoming teachers. Finally, no one, either from this School or any other, is placed on the staff of a Public

"School without having passed a very strict examination in the precise subjects which he is to teach, and having given a lesson, as if to a class, as a part of that examination. "Still further to secure the perfection of the machinery, the lessons in the schools given by these teachers, who are called professors, all precisely follow a given curriculum. "Every lesson of every hour throughout all the schools, is prescribed by the central government; and the professors prepared to do a definite task are kept to that task, and no other. Further, they are set free from every duty but that of giving the lessons. The moral training and the discipline of all the scholars, and the domestic management of the boarders, are entrusted to different officers,—the *Proviseur*, the *Censeur*, and the *Econôme*. They have not even the task of seeing that their pupils learn their lessons. "This is entrusted to an inferior set of men—the *maitres d'étude*. The management is in the hands of the Minister of Public Instruction, whose power regulates even the minutest details. He is assisted by an Imperial Council of Public Instruction, containing some of the most eminent literary and scientific men of France; and by 18 Academic Councils, corresponding to the 18 Academies which divide France between them for the purposes of professional instruction. Every important school is annually inspected and reported on; all the scholars annually examined."

THE SWISS SYSTEM OF EDUCATION.

The Canton of Zurich may be taken as the representative of Switzerland, as Prussia is the representative of Germany. "This Canton" (says the Report of Her Majesty's Commissioners, just quoted,) "shows its zeal for education by devoting nearly one-third of the whole public expenditure to that object, whilst there are also considerable endowments, and the parents pay fees besides. The system begins with the Communal School, which takes the child at six, and keeps him till he has completed his twelfth year. To this school every parent is compelled to send his children, under penalty of a fine, or to satisfy the school authorities that they are getting as good an education elsewhere. And even those who have their children educated elsewhere must still pay the school fee, just as if the children attended the school. As the schools are really good, few go elsewhere, and one finds all classes of society mixed in them. When a child has passed through the Communal School, the parent is still compelled to keep him under instruction for three years more, either in the Public Schools, or (as before) under equally good tuition. The Public Schools to which he may be sent, and among which the parent has the choice, are of five different kinds. The lowest is the Singing School (*Singschule*), which requires him to keep up his knowledge of church music and singing by one hour's practice in the week, and to attend the religious instruction of the pastor of the parish for one hour and a half. Next above this stands the finishing school (*Ergänzungsschule*), which is, in fact, a higher department of the Communal School, with eight hours of instruction a week, the eight being generally taken in two mornings. The fee is in both these schools the same, three francs a year, which may be raised to six by the local school authority. Next ranks the higher popular school, or, as it is also called, the secondary school, corresponding to what we should call a school of the third grade. Here the studies are the same as those of the Communal Schools, only that each branch is carried further, and that French is added; the instruction extends over 28 hours a week. In each of these three kinds of school, the course lasts for three years, and at the end of that time, the scholar being fifteen, is no longer required to be under instruction. The fee in the secondary school is 24 francs a year, but the school is bound to take one scholar in eight as a free scholar. The two remaining schools are—the School of Industry, with a course of five years and a half, and the Gymnasium, with a course of six years and a half. Each has a lower and a higher division. The School of Industry corresponds with the Prussian *Realschule*, but it has no Latin at all. The subjects of instruction in the lower division are religious knowledge, the mother tongue, history, geography, natural philosophy, arithmetic and mathematics, free hand and geometrical drawing, singing, gymnastics, and military exercises. The course lasts three years. In the upper division, English and Italian are a part of the regular programme. But there is no longer one course obligatory on all; there are three distinct courses, the mechanical, the chemical, and that intended to prepare for business. The Education Council

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"urges the masters not to let the school be turned into a place for mere professional study, but this organization gives a bias which it is hard to resist. The course lasts two years and a half. In the lower School of Industry the fee is 30 francs a year, in the higher 60. The Gymnasium is, in all important respects, formed on the same model as the Prussian, except that whereas in Prussia the common primary school is not regarded as the proper preparation for the Gymnasium; in Zurich it is, and the studies are so adjusted that a boy passes naturally from one to the other. The instruction of the Gymnasium is still, however, classical, and the passage to the University lies through it. But Greek is not generally obligatory and the composition is reduced to a translation into Latin or Greek once a week, and this translation is little more than a grammatical exercise. On the contrary, composition in French is carried as far as the essay, and much beyond composition in the classical languages. The fee in the lower Gymnasium is 30 francs a year, in the higher 48. The Gymnasium leads to the University,—the School of Industry to the Polytechnicum. The University is like other German Universities. The Polytechnicum (which, though situated in Zurich, is a national, and not a cantonal, institution) is a high school for training civil engineers, for teaching the applied sciences, and for training teachers of technical instruction. The fees are low; the staff of professors excellent; some of the most distinguished scientific men in Germany have been brought there by the Swiss Government. The work done for education in the Canton of Zurich, out of its own revenues, is summed up by Mr. Arnold in one sentence: 'A territory, with the population of Leicestershire, maintains a university, a veterinary school, a school of agriculture, two great classical schools, two great real schools, a normal school, for training primary and secondary teachers, fifty-seven secondary schools, and three hundred and sixty-five primary schools; and many of these are among the best of their kind in Europe.'

SCHOOLS AND THE SCHOOL LAW IN ENGLAND.

The passage of the new School Law for England forms a memorable era in her history, and marks one of those great social strides which nations, under strong pressure, sometimes take.* In this matter England has shown how strongly conservative have been her national instincts. As already indicated, the first report on which her recent school legislation was based was prepared by the last of a series of most influential Commissions which were appointed by Her Majesty, at successive periods, to enquire into the state of education in the various parts of England, Scotland, Ireland, the various countries on the continent of Europe, the United States and this Province. The reports of these Commissions would fill from sixty to eighty ordinary octavo volumes. They embrace a mass of facts elicited by questions, letters and circulars and a variety of detailed information from every source, which have thrown a flood of light on the state of Public Education in different countries, and which have proved of immense service not only in the school legislation of England, but elsewhere.† For an analysis of the English Act of 1870 we are indebted to information contained in the last report of the United States Commissioner of Education. He says:

"A great advance has been made in the system of Public Education in England during

* NOTE.—One of the most potent arguments so effectively used by the promoters of a speedy enactment of the New School Act of England, (which embodies both the "Free School" and "Compulsory" Principles) is thus stated by the Rev. Canon Kingsley, who had he says himself, for many years advocated the opposite opinion (of non compulsion).

"All I ask is—not that those who have studied National Education—but the general public, should keep in mind this broad, ugly, dangerous, disgraceful fact: There are now *** about one million, three hundred and eighty thousand children in this Kingdom who ought to be attending some Elementary School or other, but who are not; 1,380,000 children growing up in ignorance in a country which calls itself civilized, but which will be called by a very different epithet some 200 years hence unless she mends her ways right speedily."

The Revd. H. G. de Bunsen shows that out of 2,700,000 children in England which should attend the Elementary Schools, only 1,250,000 actually do so, leaving 1,450,000 or more than half the school population destitute of any kind of School Education!

† This is felt and acknowledged in the United States, and the publication of some valuable information in regard to education in Sweden and Norway, obtained through the United States legations, is urged in a letter to the Commissioner of Education at Washington as affording an opportunity of sending such a report to the English people in return for similar favours from them.

"the past year, one which gives promise that before long the proud boast of America—that education is offered as a free gift by the State to the child of every citizen—will also be that of the Mother country. The preliminary step was taken in 1869, when the Government took upon itself the supervision of the Endowed Schools of the kingdom. These Endowed Schools, many of them of great antiquity, were founded by benevolent people, generally for specific purposes. In many cases the value of the foundation has greatly increased, owing to the rise of real estate; and also abuses have sprung up, to correct which, and to render available for general educational purposes, so far as may be practicable, those moneys devoted to education, was the object of the Bill. A few of the larger Schools, such as Eton, Harrow, Rugby, which have been notably well managed, were excepted from the provisions of the law. With these express exceptions, it includes all Endowed Schools.

THE NEW SCHOOL LAW FOR ENGLAND.*

"The central authority rests in the Council of Education, and the whole of England is cut up into certain districts for School purposes, which are under the charge of Inspectors. For instance, Yorkshire has two Inspectors, who go to every Elementary School and report upon each to the Vice-President of the Council of Education. If there is any improvement to suggest, that is done; or, if a teacher should be removed, that is reported and acted upon. If children pass a certain examination an extra grant is made to the School. There are certain standards from one to seven inclusive, and the higher the standard which a class reaches, the greater the grant from the Educational Fund for that School. The payment is dependent upon the results, and the teacher is therefore earnest in pushing on his work. In regard to truancy, they will, whenever we get the law well in working order, alter that word 'may' to 'shall.' Within one year provision has to be made for the education of every child in England and Wales; and this, it is anticipated, will require that the present number of School-houses shall be doubled. The School Boards are authorized to provide funds for those additional buildings, by issuing bonds running for thirty years at 4 per cent. The discussion in Parliament which resulted in the present Act, was long and earnest, and the advance indicated by this Bill, which is confined in its action to England and Wales, will be fully appreciated only by those who followed the course of the debate, or were familiar with the previous state of Public Education in Great Britain. The question of compulsory attendance was very earnestly discussed, and was finally left to separate School Boards, who have a certain discretionary power of enforcing attendance; but the advocates of compulsion do not propose to be content until its ultimate adoption. The question of religious education in Schools was also very warmly debated, and resulted, as will be seen in the following summary of the Act, in making them wholly unsectarian. The object of the Law is to secure the establishment in every School district of Public Schools sufficient for the elementary instruction of all the children resident therein whose education is not otherwise provided for. School districts are either municipal boroughs, or parishes included in them. An Elementary School, in the meaning of the Act, is a School in which elementary instruction is the principal part of the education given, and in which the ordinary payments of each scholar do not exceed nine pence a week. In estimating the educational requirements of any district, one-sixth of the total population are to be counted as of school age.† These, less the number in Schools charging more than nine pence a week, are they for whom the Public Schools must provide. In calculating the accommodation afforded by existing Schools, eight square feet of flooring is to be allowed for each child.

* NOTE.—The first educational effort put forth in England was private. In 1808 the "British and Foreign School Society" was established. The Church of England "National Society" was formed in 1811; the "Home and Colonial School Society" followed in 1836; the "Wesleyan Education Committee" was formed in 1840; the "Congregational Board of Education" in 1842; the "London Ragged School Union" in 1844; the "Catholic Poor School Committee" in 1847; and the "Church Education Society" in 1853. The first move made by the Government in favour of education was in 1832. In 1839 and 1846 it further extended its operations, and has continued to do so until it has at last absorbed the whole work into its own hands.

† This is a very low estimate. In this Province the proportion is a little over one-fourth. This is also the estimate elsewhere.

Definition of the Public School.—To be considered a Public School, every Elementary School must be conducted in accordance with the following regulations, a copy of which must be conspicuously posted in the School-room:—1. It shall not be required as a condition of any child being admitted into or continuing in the School, that he shall attend or abstain from attending any Sunday School or any place of religious worship, or that he shall attend any religious observance or any instruction in religious subjects in the School or elsewhere, from which observance or instruction he may be withdrawn by his parent, or that he shall, if withdrawn by his parent, attend the School on any day exclusively set apart for religious observance by the religious body to which his parent belongs. 2. The time or times during which any religious observance is practised, or instruction in religious subjects is given at any meeting of the School, shall be either at the beginning or at the end of each meeting, and shall be inserted in the time-table to be approved by the Education Department, and to be kept prominently and conspicuously affixed in every School-room. And any scholar may be withdrawn by his parent from such observance or instruction without forfeiting any of the other benefits of the School. 3. The School shall be open at all times to the inspection of any of Her Majesty's Inspectors. So, however, that it shall be no part of the duties of such Inspectors to enquire into any instruction in religious subjects given in such School, or to examine any scholar therein in religious knowledge, or in any religious subject or book. 4. The School shall be conducted in accordance with the conditions required to be fulfilled by an Elementary School in order to obtain an annual Parliamentary grant. The word 'parent,' as used in these regulations, is defined as signifying any parent, guardian, or other person, having legal authority over the child.

School Accommodation.—Full returns of existing school accommodations, in each district are to be made by proper authorities (as hereinafter explained) to the Education Department, which will promptly decide whether any deficiency exists. In so doing, the department will take into consideration every school, whether a Public Elementary School or not, and whether actually situated in the school district or not, which in their opinion gives, or, when completed, will give, sufficient elementary education to, and is, or will be when completed, suitable for the children of the district. The Education Department will then publish their decisions, giving the number, size, and description of the Schools reported as available for the district, with the amount and description of the accommodations required. Any appeal against such decision must be made in writing to the Department within one month after its publication, either by rate-payers of the district (not less than ten in number, except when the smaller number represents at least one-third of the rateable value of the district) or by the managers of any Elementary School in the district. If such an appeal is made, the case must be settled by public enquiry. If no appeal is made, or if, after appeal, public enquiry has shown more accommodation to be necessary, final notice is to be issued by the Department, directing the required accommodation to be provided. If it is not supplied at the expiration of six months, or is not in the course of being supplied, a School Board must be formed to see that the work is done. If the School Board fail to comply with the requirement within twelve months, the Education Department must take the matter out of their hands and provide the needed school accommodations independent of the local authorities. School Boards may be formed without such preliminary enquiry or notice, where application is made to the Education Department by the persons who would elect the School Board, or where the Department are satisfied that the managers of any Elementary School in the district are unable or unwilling to maintain such school, and that its discontinuance would occasion a deficiency of accommodation.

Management of Schools.—Every School-board School must be a Public Elementary School as defined above, and no religious catechism or religious formula, distinctive of any particular denomination, shall be taught in the School. The School Board may delegate any of their powers except that of raising money. They may delegate the management of any School provided by them, with or without restrictions, to not less than three managers, and may remove such managers or alter the conditions as they may see fit. Any manager so appointed may resign on giving notice to the Board. Any School Board that fails to enforce the prescribed regulations will be con-

"sidered in default, and the Department will act accordingly. In any dispute the decision of the Department is to be final. The fees to be paid by children attending School-board Schools are to be fixed with the concurrence of the Department. The School Board may remit the fees of any child of poor parents for a renewable period of not less than six months, the remitted fees not to be deemed parochial relief. The School Boards must maintain the efficiency of School-board Schools, and provide additional accommodations when necessary. Schools can be discontinued, or their sites changed, only with the concurrence of the Department. If School Boards fail at any time to increase accommodations when needed, the Department must interfere. School Boards are further empowered to provide necessary apparatus, and to make compulsory purchase of School sites. The managers of any Elementary School may transfer their School to the district School Board with the consent of the Department together with that of two-thirds of the annual subscribers to the School. Objection to such an arrangement must be made within six months from the date of the transfer. When the School fees of any child of poor parentage are paid by the School Board, the parent has the right of selecting the School to which the child shall go. School Boards may establish free Schools, with the consent of the Department, and also contribute to, or establish Industrial Schools. All *School Expenses* are to be paid out of the School Fund, which fund is to be made up of fees, parliamentary grants, loans, and any other moneys received by the Board. Any deficiency in the School Fund is to be paid by the rating authorities out of the local rates. In united districts, the School Boards will apportion the amount required among the constituent districts in proportion to the rateable value of each, to be paid by the rating authorities on each. If these authorities fail to pay the required amount, or if the money is to be raised from any place which is part of a parish, the School Board may appoint officers to take the place of the rating authority of such place. School Boards are permitted to borrow money, with the consent of the Department, on the security of the School Fund, for the purpose of providing or enlarging their School-house.

"*Compulsory Attendance.*—School Boards may, with the approval of the Education Department, make by-laws requiring the attendance of all children between five and thirteen years of age, determining the time during which the children shall so attend (subject to the regulations above given), providing for the remission of the payment of the School fees of poor children, imposing penalties for the breach of the by-laws, and revoking or altering the by-laws. Children between ten and thirteen years of age may be exempted from such compulsory regulations upon certificate of proficiency from the School Inspectors; or on showing that they are otherwise sufficiently instructed, that they are sick or unavoidably prevented from attending; or that there is no Public Elementary School within the prescribed limit—three miles.

"*Parliamentary Grants.*—After March 31st, 1871, no parliamentary grant will be made to any Elementary School which is not a Public School as defined above. No application for building grants will be entertained after December 31st, 1870. After March 31st, 1871, no grant will be given in respect of any religious institution. No grant to any School in any year shall exceed the income of the School for that year from fees and voluntary contributions. Hereafter no School will be required to be connected with any religious denomination, or to give religious instruction as a condition of receiving aid from parliamentary grants. Voluntary Schools and School-board Schools are to be treated impartially. Additional parliamentary grants are to be made to exceptionally poor neighbourhoods. The annual grant may be refused to any School not previously in receipt of public aid if it is situated in a district having a School Board, and if in the judgment of the Education Department the School is not absolutely necessary."

THE SCOTCH SYSTEM OF EDUCATION.

Although it is proposed to introduce into Parliament at its next Session, a comprehensive School Law, (as in England) for Scotland, yet for the purposes of this Report, we quote the following passages from the report of Her Majesty's Commissioners, on the present system. They say :—

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"The Scotch system appears to comprise three grades of institutions for education, "Parochial Schools, intended chiefly for primary instruction; the Burgh Schools or "Academies, for secondary instruction; and the Universities. The Parochial Schools, "which date from the Reformation, are closely connected with the Scotch Church, "so much so, that when the Free Church seceded from the Establishment, the "seceders proceeded to build new schools as well as new churches. The Schools are by "law under the control and supervision of the Presbyteries, though the buildings of each "school are maintained, and a minimum salary is paid to the master, by the heritors or "land-owners of the parish. The secondary schools are the Burgh Schools in the municipal "towns and the Academies. The Burgh Schools are maintained and controlled by the "municipal authorities, who appoint the masters, determine the subjects of instruction, "and fix the fees to be paid by the scholars. It is not easy to draw the line between "these schools and the Academies. Several Burgh Schools appear, after falling into disrepute, to have been revived and remodelled, and then called by this name. As a rule, "however, it seems that an Academy either has, or has at one time had, the support of a "body of subscribers, and is therefore in some degree a proprietary as well as a municipal "school. In these cases, as long as the subscribers have continued their support, they "have retained a share in the control. Some Academies, as for instance, that of "Edinburgh, are simply proprietary schools. Lastly, above the Burgh Schools and Academies stand the four Universities. The peculiarity of the relation between these various "institutions consists in this, that they compete with and overlap each other. The Parochial Schools often give what is really secondary instruction; the Burgh Schools and Academies often give primary; and the Universities largely compete with the Burgh Schools and Academies, and admit many to the professors' lectures, who would more "naturally be still at school. Each institution in fact takes its own independent line "without regard to the others." The Commissioners then proceed to describe each class of schools, and sum up with the following reference to the keen interest felt by Scotch parents in the education of their children: "Outside the schools there is a force at work, which "really supplies them with all their life and vigour, and this is the extraordinary interest "which the parents take in the progress of their boys. All the energy and all the interest "of the Scotch teacher would perhaps not produce more result than that which English "country Grammar Schools afford, were they not seconded by the anxious and intelligent "watchfulness of parents and patrons, and by the consequent eagerness and diligence of "children. 'What place in the class to-day?' is generally found to be the first question "asked when a boy went home after school; then would follow questions as to what he "had read; whether such and such neighbour's son was above or below him; and if above "him, why so; and whether if he worked a little harder, he could not manage to take him "down; how he had gained or why he had lost a place; who was *dux*; and did he think "he had a chance of ever being *dux*, and so on; every word shewing the keen interest the "parent feels in the son's progress, and the importance which the whole family attach to "his success. In short, the schools are practically in the hands of the parents; the parents "use the masters to educate their sons, but they themselves direct the education. The "responsibility, the expense, the guidance are all their own, and the result is that they "give their hearts to a task which in many respects none others can do so well."

THE IRISH SYSTEM OF EDUCATION.

The main features of the Irish National System of Education are so well known, that it is not necessary to refer to them in detail. In 1870, the number of children on the rolls of the 6,800 National Schools was nearly *one million*, (998,999), while the average attendance was only 359,199, or a little more than one third! The Government expenditure for the year was £431,265. £60,528 additional were paid from local sources for the salaries of teachers.

COMPARISON OF THE DIFFERENT EUROPEAN SYSTEMS.

In their report, Her Majesty's Commissioners thus institute a comparison between the different Systems of Education quoted and their own, as follows:—

"The French, the Prussian and the Swiss systems owe the completeness of their success to the perfection of their machinery. There is no waste of power. The aim of the teacher is clear and distinct; the scholars know perfectly what to expect; the work is tested at every proper point; the higher education is not interfered with by the demands of the lower, as is perhaps the case in some degree in America; nor is the lower interfered with by the demands of the higher, as is certainly the case in England. The Scotch system does much, but it is impossible to put it by the side of the Prussian, or still more the Swiss, which it perhaps resembles in its general aim, without seeing how much it would gain by a co-ordination of the Schools with each other and with the Universities, and by a regular system of examinations. But even if Scotland and America can enforce success without much organization, simply because the problem of education in both countries is comparatively simple; it is impossible to expect the same result in a country like England, with so complex a society, with such a vast variety of needs, with old traditions of teaching already in existence, and of necessity exercising a powerful influence on all educational institutions new or old. The Schools are drawn in different directions by the demands of the Universities, by demands of the parents, by public opinion, by antiquated regulations; and since much of this medley cannot be destroyed, there is no remedy left but to reorganize it in such a way as to put what we have to the best use, and make room for more by the side of it."

AMERICAN SYSTEMS OF EDUCATION.

The general principles on which the systems of Schools in the several American States are founded are known to the public. The details vary in each State, and we shall, therefore, only refer to them in illustration of the modifications recently made in our own law, where necessary. Within the last few years the United States Government has established a Bureau of Education at Washington, with a view to collect yearly information in regard to Education in the various States, and to stimulate Public Education, and to assimilate the School Laws throughout the Union. Since the war, the fixed policy of the American Government has been to make the entire Republic a homogeneous whole educationally, politically and socially.

NECESSITY FOR THE RECENT CHANGES IN THE SCHOOL LAW OF ONTARIO.

We will now proceed, in the light of the educational facts and illustrations which we have given from other countries, to discuss the recent improvements which have been effected in our own law.

The population of this Province, according to the recent census, is 1,620,842. The number of children of school age is 483,966, or a little over one-fourth of the whole. The number of Elementary Schools is not much below 5,000, and are maintained at an annual cost of nearly \$1,800,000, or one dollar per head of the population. Such being the magnitude to which our Educational System has grown, every man will feel how imperative it is upon us to see that that system is as thorough and complete in all of its details as possible; and that in no respect should it be allowed to fall below the standard now reached by the other educating countries to which we have referred.

So long as our system of Schools was in its infancy, and might be fairly regarded as yet an experiment, so long might we confine our efforts to mere elementary organization and be content with very moderate results. Experience has shown, however, that without great care and constant effort the tendency of all systems of education, and ours among the rest, is to a state of equilibrium, or to a uniform dead level of passable respectability. This is the stage in its history, as elsewhere, at which our system has arrived, and at which, as we have explained, many of its friends are disposed to leave it. But those who have carefully studied the subject in all its bearings, and have looked more closely into the educational history, the progress and failures of other countries, know full well that our School System would fall behind that of other countries and become stationary, unless it embodies within itself from time to time the true elements of progress, and provides fully and on a sufficient scale for the educational wants of the youth of the country.

These wants, as indicated elsewhere, involved provision being made, at this stage of our educational history for the following among other matters, viz. :—

- I. The establishment of a National System of Free Schools.
- II. Declaring the necessity for, as well as the right by law of, every child to attend School, thus recognizing the principle of "Compulsory Education."
- III. The fixing of a higher standard of qualification for Teachers.
- IV. Giving the profession of teaching a fixed legal status, and providing for the retirement and support by it of its worn-out members.
- V. Prescribing a more systematic and comprehensive, yet practical, course of study for each class of pupils in our Schools,—including the introduction of the new subjects of Agriculture, Commercial Instruction, Mechanics, Drawing, Vocal Music and Natural History into the course of study for the Schools.
- VI. Requiring that adequate School accommodation be provided by Trustees for all the children of school age in their localities.
- VII. Giving facilities for the establishment of Township Boards of Education.
- VIII. Authorizing the establishment of Industrial Schools.
- IX. Discriminating, by a clearly defined line in the course of study, between the Public and High Schools; and prescribing a programme of studies for High Schools.
- X. Providing for the establishment of Collegiate Institutes or Local Colleges.
- XI. Declaring the duty of Municipalities to maintain High Schools equally with Public Schools, as part of the system.
- XII. New principle of "Payments by results" to High Schools.
- XIII. Providing for a more thorough and systematic inspection of Public and High Schools—thus recognizing the necessity for a more complete supervision of the entire system, and a harmony in its several parts.
- XIV. Miscellaneous Provisions: Pecuniary and Personal Responsibility of Trustees—Powers of Arbitrators—Appeals—Vacations, etc.

THE RECENT IMPORTANT CHANGES IN THE SCHOOL LAW OF ONTARIO.

Before entering into the immediate discussion of these improvements in our law, we quote, as a preliminary, the following striking remarks of the Rev. Charles Kingsley, (President of the Education Section of the Social Science Congress of England, in 1869,) on the inherent right of every child to education, and the duty of the parent and of the State in giving facilities for the enjoyment of that right.

As to the right of the child, and the duty of the parent, Mr. Kingsley says :—

"Let me tell you in a few words what principles I believe should never be lost sight of by those who wish to educate the nation. I hold, that whatever natural rights a human being brings into the world with him at his birth, one right he indubitably brings : namely—the right of education ; that is, to have his faculties and capabilities educated—brought out ; at least so far that he can see for himself something of what there is to be learned, and what there is to be done, in the world in which he must needs live ; and what of that he himself can learn and can do. I say he has a right to this. He was put into the world by no act of his own ; and he has a right to ask of those who brought him into the world, that he shall be taught how to live in it. Of course it follows that he has a right to demand education first from his own parents. They are responsible for him, not merely to the State, or to God ; they are responsible for him to himself. But if his parents will not, or cannot give him education—and that too many will not, who does not know ?—if parents, I say, will not, or cannot, educate, of whom is the child to demand his natural right ? I answer : From the State ; and if the child (as in the case) is unaware of its own right, and unable to demand it, it is the duty of all good citizens to demand it for him."

Further on, in discussing the duty of the State, Mr. Kingsley declares that :—

"The State has no right to compel the mass of citizens to receive among them every year a fresh crop of savages, to be a nuisance and a danger to the body politic. It has no right to demand that the physical life of the child shall be preserved, and yet to allow its far more important and valuable life—its intellectual and moral life—to be destroyed. Moreover, it has no right to delegate its own duties in the matter to any voluntary asso-

"ciation, however venerable, earnest, able. The State, and the State alone, is responsible "to the existing citizens for the training of those who are to become citizens. It alone "ought to do the work; and it alone can."

I.—THE SYSTEM OF FREE SCHOOLS.

Since 1850 it was left to the ratepayers in each school division to decide annually whether the Schools should be free, or partly supported by rate-bill on pupils attending the school. The principle, that a Public School education is the right of every child in the land, and that every man should contribute, according to his property, to the education of every child in the community, by whose influence and labours such property is protected and rendered valuable, had greatly obtained, so that Free Schools had increased from one hundred to five hundred per annum, until upwards of four thousand of the four thousand four hundred Public Schools were made free by actual experiments, and by the annual discussions and votes in these primary meetings of the people. The demand was very general for several years, that all the Public Schools should now be made free by law, and all local disputes on the subject be thus terminated. This has now been happily accomplished by the new law.

FREE SCHOOLS IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES.—EXAMPLES, ARGUMENTS AND ILLUSTRATIONS.

A system of Free Schools now exists in the States of Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Michigan, Alabama, Missouri, Virginia, West Virginia, Indiana and Illinois. In this latter State, with a school population about double that of ours, the expenditure for Public Schools in 1868, was nearly seven millions of dollars (\$6,896,879)—a sum more than three times that of our expenditure for Public Schools. The Free School tax alone amounted to \$4,748,105, or nearly five millions of dollars, while (with a school population less than one-half that of Illinois) our entire expenditure for Public Schools, in 1870, was only \$1,712,060, or less than two millions of dollars. This noble example of Illinois is truly stated in the report to be "without a parallel in the whole history of Free Schools on this continent." In regard to the various States of the South, the United States Commissioner of Education in his report for 1870, says:—"It is gratifying to know that under "the restoration policy of Congress the reorganized State Governments have adopted "constitutions making obligatory the establishment and conduct of free public schools for all the "children of school age." In Kentucky, a large majority of the people cast their votes in favour of Free Schools, but the legislature refused to concur with them. In Queensland, (Australia), a system of Free Schools has been lately established; and in England County Boards are authorized to establish them.

In a recent report of the Board of General Education in Queensland (Australia), the Board thus refers to the operations of the free school law introduced into that country in 1869:—"We believe that, on the whole, the effect of the change has been decidedly "beneficial; * * * but the balance between the good and the evil is certainly on the "right side. Among the conspicuously beneficial consequences of the change, the large "increase in the number of children brought within school influence naturally ranks first. "The rolls for 1870 included the names of 16,227 children, whereas the return for 1869 "showed only 11,087"—an increase of attendance, it will be seen, of nearly fifty per cent. in one year!

In summing up the result of his educational experience in England, Mr. Kingsley thus discusses the application of the new principle of Free Schools. He remarks:—

"I question, from twenty-seven years' experience, whether it is really better to make, "the labouring class pay School pence (as fees) for the education of their children; whether the wisest method is *not to make them pay School rates, as they do poor rates, and open "the Schools free.* My experience is, that as long as they pay, both the ignorant, the "stupid and the unwilling (and it is with them we have to deal in this matter) will persist "in considering schooling as an article which they may buy or not, as they see fit, like "beer, or fine clothes, or any luxury; and they will persist in thinking, or pretending to "think, that they are doing the School managers a favour, and putting money into their "pockets; that they will persist in thinking, or pretending to think, that they pay for the "whole of their children's education, and ignore the fact that three-fourths of the expense is

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"borne by others, and that the only method to make them understand that educating their children is an indefeasible duty, which as citizens they owe to the State itself, is for them to be taxed by the State itself, and for the State to say—there is your money's worth in the School. We ask no more of you ; but your children shall go to School, or you shall be punished by the law."

The State Superintendent of Public Instruction for Virginia thus forcibly states the following historical facts and arguments in favour of Free Schools :—

"The undeniable fact of the steady growth of the Public Free School System among the civilized nations for the last century creates a presumption in its favour. It flourishes under various forms of government, and when once tried is never abandoned, but, on the contrary, is cherished and perfected more and more. It is observed also that its popularity (in the United States) is not chiefly among the ignorant and moneyless, but among the more intelligent property holders, and often among those who have the largest taxes to pay. This popularity is not to be accounted for by the growth of the republican form of government, for the system existed on this continent a hundred years before there was a republic, and at this time it is flourishing among the monarchies of Europe. And would it be seen existing in a perfection unknown on this continent, and vitalizing the energies of a mighty, consolidated empire, behold the kingdom of Prussia ! As a mere matter of fact, the Public Free School System is as clearly established as an element in the world's progress as any other of the great developments of modern enterprise.

"Those who have studied the history of pauperism in Southern Europe and in England, tell us that the bulk of it comes from the neglected freedmen of the Roman empire and of the feudal barons. Now behold the result in the lazzaroni of the Mediterranean States and in the cloud of paupers in England ! In the latter the education of the ruling classes has given national prosperity, but in England every twentieth man is a pauper,* and whilst she spends but little for the education of the common people on the free system, she is (or was not long ago) compelled to spend thirty millions a year for the subsistence of her paupers, and a great deal more to punish them for their crimes. The statistics of her prisons show that 95 per cent. of crime is committed by persons unable to read or write, and also that not one criminal in two hundred has what may be called an education. And such is the testimony of prisons everywhere as to the intimate relations between ignorance, pauperism and crime.

"When, on the other hand, we turn to those European nations which have established Public Free Schools, there is a far better state of things in these particulars. Such is the case in Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Belgium, and most of the German States. There they have Common Schools, and there pauperism is almost unknown ; and the testimonies go to show that in proportion as the people are educated, they are free from crime and improved in thrift and good morals. Similar results are claimed in those States of our own prosperous and powerful country where the system has been thoroughly tried, and claimed with the greatest confidence in those States where the system has been longest tried. The outlay is great, but the income is far greater. Nothing is so costly as crime and ignorant, thriftless labour. Nothing makes public order so difficult, reputation so insecure, property so precarious, government in every department so costly and unstable, as ignorance and vice. Now for these evils there is within the power of Government no remedy so cheap and effectual as Common Schools, which bring men from darkness into the light. And in these times, when every place and privilege belong to every man, there is no estimating the stake we have in this matter. Universal suffrage simply necessitates universal education."

The Secretary of the Board of Education for the State of Connecticut, thus expresses the feeling and experience of that State on the subject :—

"Free Schools no longer need any defence. Experience has tested them. Opposition and discussion have helped them. * * * The press of Connecticut, with possibly a single exception, is now a unit in behalf of Free Schools. The cause of education was never so heartily endorsed by the masses. The results of the Free System

* In England and Wales, with a population of 23,000,000, there were on the 1st January, 1871, no less than 1,086,000 paupers. Thus one out of every twenty-one persons is a subject of charity !

"demonstrate its wisdom and necessity. The common people favour it, and already reap a rich harvest from it. The proof now before the public that over 10,000 children were barred from School by the Rate Bill, buries it beyond the possibility of resurrection. The disasters dire so confidently predicted, unless diminished attendance on Private Schools be such, do not appear. No measure so radical, touching so many persons and pockets, was ever more generally ratified by the people. Michigan quoted our arguments and followed our example in 1869; and during the last month, New Jersey adopted a most liberal Free School Law, and thus the only vestige of the Rate Bill left in this broad land was abolished. The Free School system may now be truly called the American system—the only State system in this country. It will stand so, for no State that has tried both systems ever went back to the Rate Bill."

As to the principles and conditions of the Free School system, the Commissioner of Public Instruction in Rhode Island declares that:

"A system of Free Schools, to be universally popular, must be universally practical, so much so that the dullest comprehension may see something of intrinsic value in it. It becomes every intelligent citizen and legislator, therefore, to inquire to what extent the operations of the system meet the wants of the people, and wherein it fails to secure the desired end. * * * perfect system may become a perfect failure, if it does not feel the vital forces pervading it which spring from the popular will. An imperfect system may be made to do wonders, if its defects are supplemented by an intelligent and enthusiastic body of workers, supporting and advancing its interests. To secure the hearty co-operation from the whole people, the working plan must touch and vitalize every interest, and in its broad and liberal provisions it must meet the present and anticipate the prospective wants of every child and man in society. A noted king and philosopher of ancient times, when asked, 'What kind of education should be given to boys?' answered: 'That kind of knowledge they will need to use when they become men.'"

II.—COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE AT SCHOOL.*

The provision of the law in this matter is the legitimate consequence of the principle involved in the establishment of Free Schools; for if every man is to be taxed, according to his property, for the Public School education of every child in the land, every taxpayer has a right to claim that every child shall be educated in the various branches of a good English education; otherwise it is raising money by taxation under false pretences.

And, if every man is to be taxed according to his property for the education of every child, and if every child has a right to school instruction, some provision was needful to secure both the ratepayer and the child against the oppression and wrong which might be inflicted by an unnatural guardian or parent. Society at large, no less than the parties immediately concerned, requires this protection; and the protecting provision of the law, in this respect is milder and more guarded than a corresponding one in Prussia, Massachusetts, and other countries where Public School education is provided for and guaranteed to every child in the country. According to the new Act, no parent or guardian is liable to punishment whose wrong against society and his youthful charge is not wilful and criminal. If such a protection in this mild and guarded form is found, on trial, to be insufficient for the purposes intended, a more stringent one can be enacted by the Legislature hereafter. But, I believe the law will, upon the whole, secure the end proposed.

ORIGIN OF THE COMPULSORY SYSTEM IN GERMANY AND SCOTLAND.—EXAMPLES.

1. The Rev. H. G. de Bunsen, in an address at a recent Social Science Congress, on

* By telegram, dated Paris, Nov. 7th, we learn the Council-General of the department of the Seine has voted in favour of the establishment of a system of compulsory and gratuitous education. The local rulers of Paris, evidently impressed with the great need of some salutary and effective measures for redeeming the ignorant masses (from which the conscripts are taken) from their degradation, have, like Austria, in her humiliation, taken a leaf out of their conquerors' book, and have acted boldly and promptly in this matter. The effect will be salutary throughout France. Compulsory education has also been ordered in the new provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, by the German government. This may have prompted the Parisians to action.

† The compulsory system has, within the last and present years, been adopted in Michigan, Texas, and other of the American States.

the *Education of Neglected Children*, after showing that out of 2,700,000 children in England that should attend the Public Elementary Schools, nearly one million and a half (1,450,000) do not do so, declares that :—

"There does not appear to be any other mode of arresting the fatal progress of this great evil, and of attempting to educate all classes of children, than by making education compulsory in Great Britain—that is, compulsory on the parents, and compulsory on the employers of children; in other words, the State must enforce by legal enactments the attendance of children at school. But, let me observe, there are two kinds of compulsion, the one direct, the other indirect. The one, the direct kind of compulsory education, is the law in Prussia, in North and South Germany, in several of the American States, and in several of the Cantons of Switzerland. But this kind of legal compulsion dates from the very beginning of Protestantism in some of the above-named countries, and in the rest it is coeval with their existence as independent free States. And, first, with regard to Prussia and Protestant Germany, it was Luther, (who, no doubt, in accordance with the precept of the Apostle Peter, when he says, in his first Epistle, iii., 15: 'Be ready always to give an answer to every one that asketh you a reason for the hope that is in you, with meekness and fear;')—insisted, in his address to the municipal corporations of Germany, in 1524, on the duty—the religious duty—of seeing that each Protestant child be taught to 'understand and practise the doctrine and duties of its religion.' Ever since it has been recognized in Germany, whether enforced by enactment or no, as the 'business of the Church to see its youth did so.' This duty, universally adopted by all the Protestant princes of Germany, among others by the Princes Hohenzollern (or reigning House) in Prussia, was gradually extended in such a manner, that 'compulsory education,' comprising, in addition to the knowledge of the Scriptures, and the peculiar tenets of the two denominations of religion, Protestant and Roman Catholic, reading, writing, arithmetic, and history, had become universal in Prussia by the end of the last century. And since peace was again restored to Europe, and more especially to poor suffering Prussia and the North of Germany, by the battle of Waterloo; this compulsory education has been regularly enforced in all parts of Germany, more or less, by legal enactment. It has now become so entirely one with the national feeling, that, were the law to be abrogated at this moment, the nation itself, it is generally believed, would uphold it of its own free will."

2. The Rev. Mr. Pattison, in his report to the English Commissioners says, in regard to compulsory education in Prussia :—

"The compulsion consists practically of a small fine, and the highest testimony that could be borne to the wisdom and efficiency of the law may be found in the statement which is sometimes quoted as an argument against it, viz. :—That 'the school has taken so deep a root in the social habits of the general people, that were the law repealed to-morrow no one doubts that the schools would continue as full as they are now.' Ninety-eight per cent. of the population of Prussia are stated to be able to read and write. Education is also compulsory in Denmark, where attendance at school is enforced from the age of seven to that of fourteen, and instruction is given gratuitously to children whose parents cannot afford to pay for their teaching. In Bavaria attendance at the Elementary Schools is compulsory for all children until the age of fourteen. In Saxony attendance at school, or instruction under properly qualified teachers, has been compulsory since the year 1835. Public education is said to have reached the highest point in Saxony—every child, without exception, partaking of its benefits. In Baden education is compulsory, and parents are compelled, by strictly enforced penalties, to send their children to school. In Portugal, by a law enacted in 1844, it is compulsory on parents to send their children to a place of public instruction, but this law, it is said, is not strictly enforced. In most of the Cantons in Switzerland, parents are compelled to send their children to school, or to have them privately taught, from the age of five to that of eight years. Neglect of parents in this respect is punished, in some cases by fine and in other cases by imprisonment."

3. Dr. Lyon Playfair, in referring to the history of "Compulsory" Education, says :
"The first direct compulsory law relating to education in this kingdom, that I have

"met with in my studies, was passed by James IV., of Scotland, in 1494. He ordained that "all sons of freeholders and barons should go to School under penalty, and that their eldest sons, who were to have the estates, should, after their preliminary education, attend three years at a School of Law, in order that they might administer, discreetly and wisely, "Justices' justice to the poor folk of the realm. It is a pity this compulsory law does not "still exist for eldest sons! You see in it the idea that education should be adapted to "the work of life. This main idea of fitting a man for his work was vigorously supported "by our old reformers. John Knox held firmly by it, especially in his scheme for secondary "education, which, unfortunately for Scotland, was never adopted, though his plan for "primary education was. In the former he announced that no boys should leave School "till they had devoted a proper time to "that study which they intend chiefly to pursue "for the profit of the commonwealth." This is the old conception of the object of educa- "tion, and reappears at the present day under the modern garb of "Technical Education." "All the reformers urged its necessity, especially Luther and Melancthon. Most European "States have held fast to the idea with more or less of development, but it has vanished "utterly from our English Schools. Goethe brings out the idea finely in the travels of "Wilhelm Meister in the pedagogic province, where he left his boy for education. Every "boy in that Province was especially trained according to his aptitudes, in whatever direc- "tion these manifested themselves. Wilhelm Meister, after a twelve months' absence, re- "visits the Province. He comes upon a cloud of dust produced by a troop of wild horses "under a course of training by mounted boys. One of these was his son, for horse-break- "ing was made his main education, as he was found most fitted for it. Only to soften his "mind under such a system, he was also carefully instructed in Italian literature. So it was "with all the boys in this educational province. Some were masons or carpenters, some "artists or musicians, all being treated according to their main aptitudes, though each had a "collateral study to supplement the mental deficiency which experience showed to arise in "such a course of training. Every pupil in the pedagogic province learned reverence "(*Ehrpercht*), and that of three kinds—reverence for that above him, reverence for that "around him, and reverence for that beneath him. In this quaint allegory of the pedagogic "province, you will find the secret of the prosperity of Prussia, a State at the back of "Europe, and which only got its civilization long after the Christian communities of Europe "had organized themselves."

ENGLISH ADVOCATES OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION—ITS NECESSITY.—EXAMPLES.

The Rev. Canon Kingsley, in an address before a recent Social Science Congress in England, thus eloquently answers the question: "*Ought Primary Education to be Compulsory or Voluntary?*" He replies:—

"We shall hear, I trust, much said about the relative merits of the voluntary and "and the compulsory systems in education. We cannot hear too much on both sides. "Shall we have compulsory education or not?—is, to my mind, the first question of the "day. * * * The State, I hold, has a right to compel the ignorant to learn; "but it has also the right to compel the stingy to pay toward that learning. When, there- "fore, the National Education League was started at Binnington, I, for one, joined it, as "the only method of obtaining what twenty-seven years' experience as a parish clergyman "had shown me to be necessary—*compulsory attendance*. No one is more alive than I am "to the services which different denominations and religious bodies have rendered to edu- "cation; to the services of the British and Foreign School Society; of the National "Society, and especially of that venerable body, always foremost in all benevolent works, "the Society of Friends. He who does not feel that England owes a huge debt to these "splendid results of what is called the 'voluntary principle' (in giving), must be deeply "ignorant of her history for the last eighty years. But, over and above what these good "people have done, does not much, too much, remain *which they cannot do?* for the simple "reason that those who need education most care for it least; and that those who are "unawakened to the value of religion are certain to be still less awakened to the value of "learning? Striking example of failure in the English 'voluntary' (as distinguished "from the 'compulsory') system of education. This defect seems to me to be inseparable

"from the voluntary (as distinguished from the compulsory) system of education, how ever zealously and ably carried out. * * * Even if, as is usually the case, the great majority avail themselves of the Schools rationally and thankfully enough, yet there is always a minority who cannot be made to attend regularly without threats, fines, exclusion from charities, and so forth. * * * And some who do not come to School at all; children not generally of the very poor and miserable, but mostly of able-bodied, reckless, profligate persons who are perfectly able to pay for their children's schooling a sum probably double of what would be charged: but who prefer exercising the indefeasible rights of free born Britons in spending their money in beer and fine clothes. * * * How any voluntary system is to touch these free born Britons I have not yet discovered. * * * So much for the agricultural districts. In the towns the broad fact is, that in every large town there are children to be counted by hundreds, often by thousands, who go to no school at all, and who cannot by any existing methods, be got to school. Let me, to give an example, call your attention to the case of one town, Birmingham. There is no reason to suppose that the denominational system has not been worked as earnestly and ably in Birmingham as elsewhere. * * * But it was found last year (1868) that 21,000 children out of 45,000 (or nearly half the children in Birmingham), were growing up in ignorance and idleness, * * * although it was found that there was school accommodation already for more than 31,000 children. * * * The Birmingham Education Society, finding that many of these children were kept from school simply by the poverty of their parents, devised Free School orders, by which these children would be admitted gratuitously to various schools of all denominations; and succeeded thereby in getting some 5,000 out of the 21,000 to school for awhile. But the voluntary subscriptions, even in so rich a town as Birmingham, were so insufficient that they had, after a few months, to cease paying for 25 per cent. of the poor children attending the day schools; thus throwing, to their extreme regret, large numbers of these unfortunate children on the streets. No wonder, after so patent and terrible a failure of the voluntary system, if the society went a step further, and organised—as the only hope—a National Education League, the main objects of which are (as chiefly embodied in the new law):—*To compel local authorities to find schooling for every child in England and Wales; to pay for such schooling out of local rates; to provide that the schools so prepared for, shall be unsectarian and free, without payment; and lastly, to compel by law the attendance of children not otherwise educated.*"

2. Another striking instance of the powerlessness of voluntary charity to match itself with a want, almost national in its magnitude, is thus illustrated by Dr Pankhurst, in certain remarks which he made at the Social Science Congress of 1869. He also illustrates another fact, that provision by the nation for certain charitable and worthy objects does not in any way dry up the sources or springs of individual efforts and benevolence. He says:

"The presence in England of a million and a quarter of young people who, in spite of the statesmanship, philanthropy, and Christianity of the land, grow up uneducated, become a misery to themselves and a danger and cost to the community, renders it perfectly clear, and has made it to be admitted upon all hands that education is a thing of universal interest. The great principle of National Education rests upon that. Now, if education is of universal interest, two consequences follow: first, it must be of universal provision; secondly, of universal diffusion. It is at the point of diffusion that the question of compulsion comes in; and there is one great principle set forth in English history which in my opinion answers all arguments addressed to the question of compulsion. About the time of Queen Elizabeth, we had to do for a great branch of human necessity, what we are now going to do with the question of education. We had to transfer the work of giving food and clothing to our destitute poor, from the office of charity to the office of law. On what principle was that done? Simply this, you cannot have law working efficiently in the community, unless it rests upon a moral basis. If it had not been that the poor were fed and clothed by the good will and charity of mankind up to that time, it would have been a perfectly idle thing to pass a law to compel man to do it, because it would be, as it were, manufacturing a conviction about the matter; but when charity and benevolence had reached a certain point, then it was possible to compel

"that to be done over the whole kingdom, which was being constantly done by a very large portion of it. What was the result? Did charitable work die out of the land? Did men cease to do good things for the destitute poor? No, they allowed the law to give the absolute necessities of food and clothing for the whole kingdom, and then charity and good will, being relieved from that irksome task, were able to engage in higher work which the law could not reach."

3. Dr. Playfair thus argues the logical necessity for compulsory education:—

"An improved quality of education is a necessity for its enforced reception by the people. The principle of compulsion, timidly and hesitatingly put forth in the recent English Education Act is nevertheless contained in it. The logic of circumstances drove Parliament into the recognition of compulsion; and the same logic will oblige the Legislature to make it efficient. Let us look at the facts which compelled the recognition of the principle. The right of suffrage has for its corollary the duty of instruction. You cannot give political power to a people and allow them to remain ignorant. That would be a political suicide of a nation. An uneducated people are like a nation one or two generations back in its history. They cannot grasp the ideas of the age in which they live, and are powerless to shake themselves free from the prejudices which the progress of thought has proved to be dangerous errors. They are unable to do so, as they cannot take possession of the inheritance of the intellectual wealth accumulated by their predecessors; for they do not know how to read the books forming the testament by which it was bequeathed. An uneducated people, endowed with political power, is therefore, an anomaly, in the highest degree dangerous to a nation. Hence, when we bestowed on the people the right of suffrage it became necessary that they should have efficient instruction as its corollary. Secondly, we have now established what every civilized nation except England has long had—education by local rates. A civic support of education has again for its corollary enforced instruction of the individual citizen. For if it be right that the State should compel a community to educate all its citizens, it must be right to give power to that community to extend the education to every citizen." He says further that

COMPULSORY EDUCATION INVOLVES AN IMPROVEMENT IN ITS QUALITY AND AMOUNT.

"But you cannot enforce education unless you make it of a quality which you are certain will be useful to the person receiving it. Compulsory education, then involves an improvement in its amount and quality. Compulsion is of two kinds, direct and indirect. By the direct method every parent is bound to keep his children at school or be punished for the neglect. The indirect compulsion means that education shall be made the first tool with which labour can be begun, and, if that tool be not in the possession of the candidate for employment, the employer must not engage him. The indirect plan has the high authority of Adam Smith in its favour, but, it is unnecessary to indicate a preference between the two methods, for both may be good and necessary. In the Act of last Session only the direct system is recognized, though the others form the basis of our Factory Acts. Direct compulsion is most easily applied when it is least required, that is, when public feeling is entirely in its favour, and denounces the parent who neglects the education of his child as much a brute as if he starved it by refusing bread. But in England you have about half a million of these brutes to deal with, and their commonness prevents an adequate public censure of the magnitude of their crime against society."

The Commissioners appointed in Victoria, (Australia,) to report upon the "operation of the system of Public Education in that country," speaking of compulsory education, say, in the report of 1868:—

"Whilst fully admitting the divided state of opinion in reference to this subject, as well as the serious, practical difficulties that beset it, we have resolved to submit the recommendation that a law rendering instruction imperative, should be adopted in Victoria. The existence in constitutional theory, at all events, of an equality of political rights between all classes of Her Majesty's subjects in this colony, suggests the paramount importance of early provision being made, by means more effectual than any that have hitherto existed, for the diffusion of sound instruction amongst the rising generation of all classes."

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AMERICAN ADVOCATES OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION.—ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. In Massachusetts the law at present prescribes compulsory attendance at School for every child between the ages of eight and fourteen for three months in the year. The Board of Education for the State have recommended to the Legislature that in future the compulsory attendance shall be for *six*, instead of three months in the year. The Superintendent of Public Instruction in the State of Maine thus summarizes the arguments in favour of compulsory education :—

"The power which compels the citizen to pay his annual tax for the support of Schools, should, in like manner, fill the Schools with all of those for whose benefit that contribution was made. It is in the light of a solemn compact between the citizen and the State community. The private citizen contributes of his means, under the established rule of the State, for the education of the youth, with a view to protection of person and security to property; the State, compelling such contributions, is under reciprocal obligations to provide and secure the complete education for which the contribution has been made. This implies the exercise of State power, and involves compulsory attendance as a duty to the tax-payer. The State builds prisons and penitentiaries for the protection of society, and taxes society for the same. But does she stop here, leaving him who has violated law to be pursued by the community in a mass, to be apprehended by a crowd, and borne by a throng to the place of incarceration? No!—she pursues the criminal through legitimate instrumentalities, ferrets him out by the sharpest means of detection, and eventually secures that safety and protection to society for which society has been taxed. Now, to prevent crime, to anticipate and shut it off by proper compulsory efforts in the School-room, working with and moulding early childhood and youth to the 'principles of morality and justice, and a sacred regard for truth, love of country, humanity, and a universal benevolence, sobriety, industry and frugality, chastity, moderation and temperance, and all other virtues which are the 'ornaments of society,' the State not only has the right to inaugurate such methods as may be deemed best, but is under strict obligations to do so by all the means in her power."

2. The Commissioner of Schools in Rhode Island, in deploring the fact that 10,000 children in that small State do not attend school, "but are learning the vices and corruption which idleness, neglect and profligacy most surely gender, and, under the influence of bad associates, and adepts in crime, are candidates for the Reform School and the prison," asks :— "Can the State afford the loss of so many of its children from its schools of learning to be educated in schools of crime? Can it take the responsibility even of allowing one-fifth of its youthful population to grow up in a condition which will endanger its civil rights, as well as material prosperity and its social and moral character? The public sentiment of the people asks protection from midnight plunder, arson and murder. Crime and ignorance masked by day go hand in hand by night to perform deeds of wickedness and shame. Shall society patiently suffer the wrong and its repetition? * * * The Public School can do its part, but not the whole work, and, in order that it may do its legitimate part, the child must be placed and held within its influence."

3. The Report of Dr. Fraser (now Bishop of Manchester), on the "Common School Systems of the United States and Canada" contains a good deal of information on this subject. He says :—

"From many sections of the community, and especially from those who would be called the educationists, the cry is rising both loud and vehement, that greater stringency is required in the law, and that compulsory attendance is the proper correlative of 'Free Schools.' For, it is argued, if the State taxes me, who perhaps have no children, towards the support of the Schools, 'for the security of society,' I have a right to claim from the State, for the security of the same society, that the Schools which I am taxed to maintain shall be attended by those for whose benefit they were designed."

"I cannot close," says the Superintendent of the Schools in Providence, Rhode Island, "without repeating what I have said in all my former reports, that our Schools are suffering more from the evils of truancy than from all other causes combined."

" Could a true picture of the rapid increase of youthful depravity be portrayed in all its appalling colours, it could not but startle and astonish every friend to humanity and social order. The seed now being sown will produce in coming years a most terrible harvest. Short-sighted must that policy be, independent of all moral considerations, that hesitates to spend a few hundred dollars in the prevention of crime, rather than incur, with all the risks of life and property, the expenditure of thousands in punishing it, and in retrieving the miseries that follow in its train."

III.—HIGHER STANDARD OF QUALIFICATION FOR TEACHERS.

1. On no one subject is there such general unanimity in all educating countries than on the necessity for granting Certificates of Qualification to teachers only after examination. All were agreed upon this point; but all were not equally agreed as to the necessity for due qualifications on the part of the examiners themselves. The difficulty of obtaining the services of qualified persons in the rural parts was often urged as a reason why it should not be insisted upon. All that at first was deemed desirable in this matter was the constitution of *some* local authority for the examination and licensing of teachers, without reference in many cases to any qualifications on the part of the examiners, but that of social or official position. It was felt, too, that Normal Schools, Teachers Institutes and Training Classes in Schools or Colleges would make up in some degree for the lack of professional experience in enquiring into and fixing the standard of a teacher's qualifications for the important duties of his office; and that if teachers wished to take a higher rank in their profession, they could avail themselves of these facilities. But experience has proved how valueless, comparatively speaking, were certificates to teachers obtained from examiners who (though anxious to discharge their duties faithfully) practically knew nothing of teaching themselves, or of the peculiar fitness so necessary to a teacher for the right discharge of the duties of his profession. Teachers, too, were found who were disposed to rest satisfied with certificates obtained under such circumstances; and Schools and pupils alike suffered from a want of ambition or enterprise on the part of such teachers. The depressing effect on the Schools and on the profession itself of such a state of things had been long felt; in the various American States efforts have been made effectually to remedy the evil. The old Examining Boards, often the Trustees themselves, or some official persons in the neighbourhood, have been gradually superseded by professional and trained teachers of the highest grade, and the principle has gained ground that, as in the professions of Divinity, Law, Medicine, Civil Engineering, etc., none but professionally trained teachers should act as examiners for the licensing of teachers for our Public Schools.

PROFESSIONAL BOARDS OF EXAMINERS IN VARIOUS STATES.

2. In the State of Pennsylvania there are four grades of certificates granted, each marks the successive stages of the growth of professional experience. The First, or lowest grade of certificate granted, is a mere license "to begin to teach," and is limited to one year; the Second Grade is given by the County Superintendent to any teacher who can pass an examination in certain literary subjects and in "the theory of teaching;" the Third is simply a "Professional Certificate" permanently good "in the county in which the holder resides, and for one year in any other county;" the Fourth and highest grade is given by the Normal School Board of Examiners, which grant State Certificates, good everywhere in the State, and unlimited as to time, to graduates of Normal Schools of two years standing, who come before them *fully* recommended as good teachers by the proper officers. A similar certificate is given to practical teachers who pass the prescribed examination.

3. In Illinois, "States Certificates are granted to teachers of approved character, scholarship, and successful experience, in virtue of the authority conferred by the School Law, as amended February 16, 1865." The clause which confers such authority is as follows:

"The State Superintendent of Public Instruction is hereby authorized to grant State Certificates to such teachers as may be found worthy to receive them, which shall be of perpetual validity in every County, and School District in the State. But State Certi-

"Certificates shall only be granted upon public examination, of which due notice shall be given, in such branches and upon such terms and by such examiners as the State Superintendent and the Principal of the Normal University may prescribe. The fee for a State Certificate shall be \$5. Said certificate may be revoked by the State Superintendent upon proof of immoral or unprofessional conduct.

"Applicants for State Teacher's Diploma are required to furnish satisfactory evidence.

1st—Of good moral character. 2nd—Of having taught with decided success at least three years, one of which shall have been in the State. 3rd—To pass a very thorough examination in orthography, penmanship, reading, mental and written arithmetic, English Grammar, modern geography, history of the United States, algebra, elements of plane geometry, and theory and art of education. 4th—To pass a satisfactory examination in the elementary principles of anatomy and physiology, botany, zoology and chemistry. 5th.—To pass a satisfactory examination in the School Laws of Illinois, especially as relating to the duties and legal rights of teachers."

4. In California, "the granting of State Certificates to teachers is entrusted to a State Board of Examination, composed of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, and four professional teachers, with power to grant certificates for one, two, four or six years, or for life. At the meeting of the State Teachers Institute this year, composed of about six hundred of the leading teachers of the State, it was unanimously resolved: 'That inasmuch as the various County Boards of Examination are composed of many persons of many different degrees of qualification, or no degree in some instances, and therefore form no standard, or data, from which the State Board can judge of their work, the granting of State Certificates on county examinations, or on no examinations, should be discontinued.'

5. In regard to this subject, the State Superintendent thus remarks: "The time is rapidly approaching when teaching must be recognized as a profession; when a diploma from a Normal School, or a certificate of examination by a legally authorized association of teachers, or a State Board of Examination, shall be a license to teach school until revoked by those who issued it. Educational conventions in every part of our country express a general desire for a distinct and definite recognition of the occupation of teaching by forms equivalent to those now existing in law, medicine, and theology. It is true there are many who make teaching a temporary occupation, a stepping-stone to other pursuits, and there is no objection to this, when they are duly qualified for the noblest of human duties; but there is a large class, becoming larger every year, who desire to make it the occupation of a life—an occupation which calls for a range of acquirements and a height of qualification fully equal to that of the liberal professions."

6. In other States the old system continues, while in some the teachers are subjected to periodical examinations without reference to their experience or ability.

7. In Prussia, two means are used to secure the efficiency of teachers: In the first place, "Every teacher must pass a very stringent examination (before a professional board) in the subjects which he proposes to teach, and he is only allowed to teach those in which he has passed, and only to classes of the precise standing for which his knowledge indicates him to be fit; and secondly, every teacher is required to pass a year at some school, watching the work, and learning how it is done."

NEW SYSTEM OF EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS IN ONTARIO.

8. Hitherto, in our own Province, certificates were issued by County Boards of Public Instruction. Each Board consisted of a number of members, most of whom, and in some instances all of whom, have had no experience as teachers; each Board appointed the time as well as place of its own meeting, prepared its own examination papers for three classes of teachers, and has then given certificates according to its discretion, both as to class and duration. Under the new Act, each Board of Examiners consists of not more than five members who have had experience in teaching, and is under the direction of a County Inspector, who must be a First Class Teacher of the highest grade; and the meeting of each Board is appointed to be held the same day in every County and city of the Province. The examination papers for all three classes of teachers are prepared, and the value of each question, and the time allowed for examinations in each subject,

determined by a committee of practical teachers, under the sanction of the Council of Public Instruction,—that committee consisting, at present, of Professor Young (late Grammar School Inspector), and the two Inspectors of High Schools. The examination papers for each County are sent under seal to the County Inspector, which seal is not broken except in the presence of the candidates for examination on the day and at the hour appointed. The merits of the answers to the questions for second and third class certificates are decided upon by each County Board of Examiners; but the answers to the questions for First Class Certificates are transmitted to the Education Department at Toronto, to be decided upon by the Council of Public Instruction on the Report of its Committee of Examiners. Special instructions accompany the examination papers. It is proper to remark here that what have heretofore been termed "*Third Class County Board Certificates*" are not permitted by the provisions of the new Act, and that what are called, and provided for under the new Act as, *Third Class Certificates*, are quite equal, if not above what have heretofore been called *Second Class County Board Certificates*. They are available for three years, and throughout the County in which they are granted. No new candidate for teaching can receive a higher than a *Third Class Certificate* at his first examination, or before the expiration of three years from that time, unless on the special recommendation of the Inspector for his attainments, ability and skill in teaching. No teacher is eligible to become a candidate for a *Second Class Certificate*, who does not produce testimonials of having taught successfully three years; but he may be eligible at a shorter period after having received his *Third Class Certificate*, on the special recommendation of the County Inspector.

9. *Second Class Certificates*, under the new Act, are of much more value, and should be of a higher character, than *First Class Board Certificates* under former Acts, as the latter was limited to a County, and could be cancelled at the pleasure of the Board that granted it; but the former is a life license (during good behaviour), and is available in every part of the Province. Each County Inspector, and the other members of each County Board of Examiners have, therefore, been impressed with the duty of not granting a *Second Class Certificate* to any candidate without satisfactory proof that he or she is a successful teacher of three years' standing (except in the case above specified), and a clear conviction in their own minds, that such candidate is qualified to teach all the subjects of the Public School Programme. This is required, not only by the patriotic spirit of the law, and conformity to the objects and principles of the School System, but as an act of common justice to every ratepayer in the Province. The Schools are made *free by law*; and every man in the country is taxed according to his property to support the Public Schools; and every taxpayer has a corresponding right to have his children educated in the Public Schools in all the subjects of the Public School Programme of studies; and he is deprived of this right if a teacher is employed who cannot teach his children these subjects, as far as required. Whether, therefore, the County Boards grant many or few *Second Class Provincial Certificates*, I trust they will give no such Certificate as a personal favour, but simply upon the ground of ability to render the public educational service to the country which the law contemplates, and which every ratepayer has a right to demand.

OBJECTIONS ANSWERED.

1. But it is proper for me to notice objections which have been made to the high standard which is alleged to have been fixed for giving Certificates to teachers, and the expressed belief that many Schools will have to be closed for want of legally qualified teachers. When I state, as I shall presently explain, that I have provided that not a single School throughout the land shall be closed for want of a legally qualified teacher, and yet without lowering the standard of regular Certificates, it will be seen at once how imaginary are the forebodings of certain newspapers and their sympathizing correspondents.

2. Let us now look at the facts of the whole case. It is admitted on all hands, and it was so admitted in the Legislature when the new School Act was a Bill under consideration, that the standard of Public School Teachers' qualifications was too low; that the examinations of teachers by the "County Boards of Public Instruction" were inefficient and unsatisfactory; some called them "shams" and "farces," with very few excep-

tions; all admitted that whatever good these County Boards, as then constituted, had done in the infancy of our School System, they had, in the majority of instances, long outlived their usefulness, either in elevating the qualifications of teachers, or in promoting the efficiency or permanence of the teacher's profession, and that some change was necessary.

3. It was, furthermore, alleged, that undue partiality had been shown in granting Provincial Certificates to students of the Normal School, who were no better qualified than many First Class County Board Teachers, and that these were quite as worthy of a Provincial Certificate as First Class Normal School Teachers. Though I knew the imputation and statement to be utterly unfounded, I concurred in the principle involved in it: namely, that all those teachers throughout the land who are equally well qualified with Normal School Teachers who have received First and Second Class Provincial Certificates, are entitled to Certificates of the same class, and should have the earliest and all possible facilities to obtain them. Accordingly I recommended to the Council of Public Instruction the appointment of a Committee of Examiners, composed of most able and experienced teachers, and wholly unconnected with the Normal School. I first proposed that one and the same set of examination papers for First and Second Class Certificates for Normal School Teachers and other teachers throughout the Province, with the same values of answers to questions; but it was objected, that, as the sessional examination of Normal School Teachers would take place several weeks earlier than the examination of teachers in the various Counties, the papers would become known. My answer was, that I thought this could be prevented by proper precautions, but that if, in some instances, any of the questions should become known to candidates, it would be to the comparative disadvantage of the Normal School candidates, and to the corresponding advantage of non-Normal School candidates for Certificates. But my recommendation was overruled, when I suggested to the Examiners that they would make the papers for the examination of teachers in the Counties somewhat easier than those which had been used in the examination of Normal School Teachers. This, I have been assured, has been done; and it may be shown by comparing the Normal School Examination Papers, published in my last Annual School Report, with the Examination Papers recently used in the County Board examinations, and which were prepared in sets for distribution, and published in the *Journal of Education* for general information.*

4. Now, what is the result? The result is, that but fourteen candidates have presented themselves in all the Counties of the Province for examination for First Class Certificates, and a surprisingly small number of candidates for Second Class Certificates, more than half of whom have failed in the examinations. A majority of more than three-fourths of the candidates have presented themselves for Third Class Certificates. Of these, a large number had held First Class County Board Certificates, but many of them are reported to have failed in their examinations for Third Class Certificates. These facts not only authorize the statement, but furnish the most complete demonstration of the injustice of the attacks upon the Normal School system, and of the utter defectiveness of the former County Board examinations of teachers.

5. It now happens that the very parties who have heretofore been most vociferous as to the equal qualifications of First Class County Board Teachers with First Class Normal School Teachers, now complain that the standard of examinations for Certificates

* Another complaint was urged, which is thus replied to by Rev. Professor Young, the Chairman of the Central Board of Examiners:—"The complaint is that all the difficult theoretical questions in the Second Class papers in Algebra were taken from Sangster; none from Todhunter. People would naturally suppose, from such a statement, that the paper contained a large number of theoretical questions. The fact is, that there were only four theoretical questions in it altogether. Of these, one, the last in the paper, was not taken into account in fixing the total number of marks on which the average prescribed by the Council of Public Instruction, in order that a candidate may receive a Certificate of a certain grade, was calculated. This question, therefore, could be an injury to no candidate, though it might be a benefit to some. Of the remaining three theoretical questions, one was taken neither from Sangster nor from Todhunter; and the other two are found in Todhunter, as well as in Sangster. And, to crown all, though specified by the Council of Public Instruction in their programme for the examination of teachers. In the revised programme for the examination and classification of teachers, prescribed on the 28th of March, 1871, under the heading, "Minimum qualifications for Second Class Provincial Certificates," will be found the following:—"Algebra: To be acquainted with the subject as far as the end of section 163, page 129, of the authorized text-book (Sangster)."

has been suddenly raised too high, in consequence of which many worthy teachers will be disqualified, and many schools must be closed for want of legally qualified teachers. My answer is, that the standard for Provincial Certificates has not been raised at all, but is the same (with some mitigation) as that which has been required in giving Provincial Certificates to Normal School Teachers; and the standard of examinations for Third Class County Certificates is the same as that required merely for admission to the Normal School. The simple fact is, that these examinations are now made *realities*, and not "shams" and "farces." I am sure that no intelligent man, after examining the programmes for the examinations for even the First and Second Class Provincial Certificates, will say that they are in any respect too high for life-certificates of teachers of Schools, for the support of which all classes of the community are taxed, and on which they are chiefly depending for the education of their children; and I am persuaded that in less than three years, a sufficient number of teachers will become regularly qualified, under these programmes, to supply all the Public Schools of the country, without requiring temporary Certificates at all, except in a few and rare instances.

12. But it is said, "You are, in the meantime, shutting up many schools for want of teachers." I answer, not so; for, though a County Inspector has not authority to give temporary certificates to *rejected* candidates, nor have I authority to authorize him to do so, yet he can do so on the recommendation, or with the consent of a majority of his fellow-Examiners of the County Board, as, in such cases, though the candidates have *failed* in their recent examinations, they may not be considered as having been absolutely *rejected*, when the Examiners recommend temporary certificates to be granted to them. But, in addition, the County Inspector can give temporary certificates to other applicants whom he may find qualified to teach particular schools that might not otherwise be supplied. In this way, not a single school need be closed for want of a legally qualified teacher; and the regular standard of qualifications can be maintained, until teachers become qualified according to it in sufficient numbers to supply all the schools. It is also to be remarked, that the certificates heretofore given by County Boards are perpetuated according to the terms of them, and are not affected by any failures of the holders of them at the recent examinations—not even those certificates given during the *pleasure* of the Board, as no Board has been authorized to cancel any such certificates this year. But it is manifest that a Third Class Certificate under the new system signifies more, and is of more value than many a First Class old County Board Certificate.

13. It is, however, objected again, "It is hard for old teachers to be set aside, because they cannot qualify under the new system." I answer, as government exists not for office-holders, but for the people, so the schools exist not for the teachers, but for the youth and future generations of the land; and if teachers have been too slothful not to keep pace with the progressive wants and demands of the country, they must, as should all incompetent and indolent public officers, and all lazy and unenterprising citizens, give place to the more industrious, intelligent, progressive and enterprising. The sound education of a generation of children is not to be sacrificed for the sake of an incompetent though antiquated teacher. If the younger members of the profession would heartily support the Superannuation provisions of the new law, instead of uselessly declaiming against them, they could entirely remove this objection in the most effective and satisfactory way.

IV.—A FIXED LEGAL STATUS FOR THE PROFESSION OF TEACHING.

1. Another great improvement effected by the new Act has been the giving to the profession of teaching a fixed legal status, and, as a necessary result, the providing for the retirement and support by it of the worn-out members of the profession.

2. For the first time in the school legislation of this Province, and, I believe, in but one or two States of the American Union, a practical knowledge of teaching is made an indispensable condition to the appointment of Public School Inspectors and County or City Examiners. Hitherto, while some efficient and excellent Local Superintendents were appointed, many more were appointed from electioneering and local considerations, who were both incompetent for, and indifferent to, the duties of the office. I have been assured by many county councillors, that the legal defining of a local superintendent's qualifications for office would have been a great help in enabling them to resist improper elec-

pioneering pressure, and in the selection of the best qualified men for that important work. In the State of Pennsylvania, no one can be appointed to the office of County Superintendent but "a person of literary and scientific acquirements, and skill and experience in teaching." With our former system of Township Superintendents, there was not only no legal standard of qualifications, but *experienced teachers were practically excluded from the office*, because the salary attached to it was insufficient for their support, and they had (as a general rule) no other profession or employment by which to gain a livelihood. But now that the sphere of the office is enlarged, so as to occupy the entire time of the Inspector, and secure to him a support: as the qualifications of it are now duly defined, to be those of a First Class Teacher of the highest grade, it is open to the able and experienced teacher, as the legitimate reward of his merits.

3. In carrying the new law into effect in this matter, the services of several efficient County and City Superintendents were regarded as a sufficient evidence of their qualifications; but for all new candidates, experience in teaching is declared to be an essential qualification for the office, together with a knowledge of subjects taught in the schools. I believe all parties agree that in this respect the new Act contains the mainspring of an immense elevation in the position and usefulness of the teacher's profession. Even in a recent annual association of teachers, the most restless and faultfinding of the number present could not otherwise than express satisfaction with the general provisions of the new Act, and protested against one clause only, the most benevolent clause of the whole Act—the clause which requires each licensed male teacher to pay for the license (or monopoly of teaching which such license gives to him against any unlicensed teacher), at the rate of two dollars each half year towards the support of superannuated or worn out members of his own profession.

FIXING THE MINIMUM SALARIES OF TEACHERS

1. I had hoped to have still further raised the status of Teachers' profession by getting the Legislature to fix by law the minimum salary to be paid to Teachers, in accordance with the class of certificate which they held. The principle of fixing the minimum salaries of teachers was concurred in by three-fourths of the County Conventions which I held in 1869. But the minorities in opposition to it were very large, and it was only carried upon the ground that liberal aid might be expected to be given to sections in new and poor settlements. The minimum fixed, though small, was not concurred in by the Legislature.

2. I think one of the most fruitful sources of the change of teachers arises from the pernicious "cheap teacher" system. Dr. Fraser, Bishop of Manchester, in his report, thus forcibly states the case, and gives illustrations. He says (page 69): "In almost all the reports, the rapid changes of teachers are deplored as one of the greatest hindrances to the progress of the schools. The changes occur chiefly in the rural districts, and among the junior teachers of the city (and town) schools." Further on he says: "Indeed, it is the low range of salaries, acting powerfully as a motive upon the general restlessness of the American temperament, which produces those rapid and continual changes in the teaching staff of the schools, the effects of which are so deeply and unanimously deplored. It is thought a great thing to retain the same teacher in the same school for a whole year. A calculation is made, that 'at least one-fourth of the money expended on the schools is thus wasted.' The quietness and success that has marked a school year is attributed chiefly to the employment of the same teachers who had taught for some time in the township before. To find a body of teachers who intend to 'make teaching their business for several years,' excites surprise. And yet it is felt and acknowledged that 'a teacher is worth twice as much the second term as during the first.' 'Frequent change of teachers' is classed with their 'incompetence,' and the 'irregular attendance' of scholars, as the three great 'hindrances' to the successful prosecution of the schools."

3. We cannot but remark that teachers themselves promote, to a large extent, this pernicious system of change. Many of them enter the profession as a temporary expedient, and take a school for a year or more. Such teachers have no motive to improve the schools, or to seek a re-engagement. Their only object is to make a little money out of them, or use them to bridge over some scheme of advancement.

EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING REQUIRED FROM INSPECTORS AND EXAMINERS.

The official regulations in regard to Public School Inspectors and Examiners, adopted by the Council of Public Instruction, are as follows :

1. *Qualifications of Public School Inspectors.*—All County and City Superintendents of Common or Public Schools, who have held that office consecutively for three years ; all teachers of Public Schools who have obtained, or who shall obtain, First Class Provincial Certificates of qualification of the highest grade (A) ; all Head Masters of Grammar or High Schools, who have taught the same school three years, and who shall prepare and transmit to the Education Department a satisfactory Thesis on the Organization and Discipline of Public Schools ; and all Graduates in Arts, who have proceeded regularly to their degrees in any University in the British Dominions, and who have taught in a college or school not less than three years, and who shall prepare and transmit to the Education Department a satisfactory Thesis on the Organization and Discipline of Public Schools, shall be considered legally qualified for the office of County Inspector of Public Schools, without any further examination, on obtaining, in each case, from the Education Department, the certificate required by law.

2. *Qualifications of Examiners.*—All Head Masters of Grammar or High Schools, and those Graduates in Arts who have proceeded regularly to their degrees in any University in the British Dominions, and have taught in a college or school not less than three years ; all candidates for Degrees in Arts in the Universities of the United Kingdom, who, previously to the year 1864, possessed all the statutable requisites of their respective Universities for admission to such degrees, and have taught in a college or school not less than three years ; and all teachers of Common or Public Schools who have obtained First Class Provincial Certificates of qualification, or who may obtain such certificates under the provisions of the present law, shall be considered as legally qualified to be appointed members of a County or City Board of Examiners, without further examination, on their obtaining from the Education Department, for the satisfaction of the County Council or City Board, a certificate of their having complied with this regulation, and being eligible under its provisions.

Regulations for giving effect to the foregoing.—I. Candidates eligible to act as County or City Examiners will, on application, be furnished with the requisite certificate from the Education Department.

II. A candidate for the office of County or City Inspector of Public Schools, must, in order to be eligible for that appointment, obtain from the Education Department a certificate of his qualification for the office. This will be transmitted to him on his furnishing satisfactory proof that he possesses the legal qualifications. In the case of University Graduates and Head Masters of High Schools, a satisfactory Thesis is required on the Organization and Discipline of Public Schools, etc.

III. The Thesis to be prepared ought not to exceed twenty-five or thirty pages of foolscap, written on one side only, and should embrace the following topics, or subjects, chaptered as numbered, viz. :—

1. Organization of schools ; classification of pupils ; the system of monitor teachers—its use and abuse ; school buildings, and in and out-door arrangements ; school furniture and apparatus, &c.

2. School management ; time tables and limit tables of study ; school rules ; school register ; roll-book ; visitor's book.

3. General principles of education ; art of teaching, with examples of the mode of treating various subjects ; characteristics of the successful teacher ; how to secure attention ; how to interest the class.

4. Characteristics of good style of questioning ; correction of errors ; recapitulations, &c.

5. Principles of mental, moral, and physical culture of childhood ; gymnastics and calisthenics.

6. School discipline ; rewards and punishments ; prizes ; authorized system of merit cards.

7. School libraries ; how best to make them available ; school museums, or local collections—their value, and how to promote their formation and use.

8. Principles of the School Law relating to Public School Trustees, Teachers, and Inspectors of Schools.

DUTY OF TEACHERS TO PROVIDE FOR THE SUPPORT OF THOSE WORN-OUT IN THE PROFESSION.

1. In 1854, the Legislature inaugurated a benevolent scheme for the formation of a fund, out of which to pension the worn-out members of the profession of teaching.* It provided that teachers should contribute four dollars per annum to the Superannuation Fund, while the Legislative body would supplement these contributions by a liberal annual grant. The Legislature performed its part generously, but the teachers, except in a very few isolated cases, failed to do theirs. This they themselves seem to have felt ; and in 1869, they suggested to the Legislature that each person on entering the profession of teaching, should pay a fee of *ten* dollars into the Superannuated Teachers' Fund for his certificate.† In the draft of Bill, as submitted by me to the Government in 1869, I modified this proposal, and provided that "no certificate of qualification should be valid any longer than the holder thereof should pay four dollars per annum into the fund for the support of superannuated or worn out teachers, as provided by law." This proviso embodied an equitable principle of the English and Dominion Civil Service Acts, and was designed to do much to provide permanency in, and elevate the teachers' profession ; while the salaries of teachers in their agreements with Trustees, would no doubt, in most cases, be augmented in proportion.

2. During the passage of the Bill through the House, this section of the Act was again modified as follows :—"Each male teacher of a public school holding a certificate of qualification under the School Acts of this Province shall, and each such female teacher may, pay into the fund for the support of superannuated school teachers the sum of four dollars annually ; and each Inspector of Schools is hereby authorized and required to deduct one half of such sum semi-annually from any payments made by him to any male teacher under his jurisdiction, and transmit the same to the Education Department ; Provided always, that any teacher retiring from the profession shall be entitled to receive back from the Chief Superintendent one half of any sums thus paid in by him to the fund ; And provided further, that on the decease of any teacher, his wife, or other legal representative, shall be entitled to receive back the full amount paid in by such teacher, with interest at the rate of seven per centum per annum." Under the new Act, additional provision is thus made which will more than double the fund for the assistance of disabled or worn-out teachers of Public Schools. Among the clergy of different religious persuasions, funds are established by required subscriptions for their relief or partial support in old age. In the Wesleyan body, for example, *every* one of the (now six hundred) ministers is *required* to pay five dollars per annum towards the support of superannuated ministers and their widows—a regulation which has been in force more than a quarter of a century. In the Civil Service in England, from two to five per cent. is deducted from the annual salary of each officer or clerk in the employment of Government towards the support of such officers and clerks in old age. The same principle is embodied in the School Act. But if a teacher leaves the profession, he is entitled to receive back one-half of the sum which he has paid in towards the support of the worn-out members of it, which is even more than a Wesleyan minister could obtain who should abandon his work. The objectors to such an arrangement are chiefly those teachers who do not intend to make teaching the profession of their life, but who make teaching, for the time being, a stepping-stone to some other pursuit or profession. They wish to avail themselves of its *license* to make what money they can out of it, without paying anything in return, even in behalf of those who spend their vigour of life in the work. The subscriptions to this fund are paid through the County Inspectors and Chief Superintendent, and are deposited forthwith in the bank to the credit of the Treas-

* NOTE.—The present Bishop of Manchester, in his Report on the schools of Ontario, after giving the facts, thus speaks of the fund as follows :—"The whole plan does credit both to the wisdom and the liberality of its framers."

† In Illinois the fee for a Teacher's State Certificate of qualification is \$6.

nrer of the Province, as are all the fees of the Model Schools, and the moneys received at the apparatus and library and prize book depositories, and paid out by the Provincial Treasurer to the parties entitled to receive them, on the certificate of the Chief Superintendent.

3. In a recent Report on Popular Education in Victoria, Australia, the principle of compulsory payment to the Superannuation Fund, is discussed as follows: "In the Civil Service of India, retiring pensions are raised partly by compulsory subscriptions to a Superannuation Fund. Among the parochial teachers of Scotland, also, a fund, similarly raised, exists for granting pensions to teachers, and annuities to their widows. The teachers of Baden (and probably of other German States) enjoy, I learn, the benefits of an exactly similar plan; and, for the like good object, a fund is in the same way created among the Clergymen of the Presbyterian and other Churches. Upon this principle, it would be easy to establish, without extra cost to the State, a Teachers' Superannuation Fund, to be raised by compulsory deductions made by the Board of Education from salaries and results only. As this subject is a very important one, I may be excused for going into details, and will therefore jot down my ideas as to the basis on which it should be developed. The Superannuation Fund should be created by *compulsory* contributions from all teachers, assistant teachers, pupil-teachers, and work-mistresses, directly recognized by the Board of Education. The contributions should consist in a deduction of — per cent, made by the Board of Education, half-yearly, monthly, or otherwise, from the salaries and result payments to every school in receipt of aid. The rate of pension, varying according to sex and classification, should be so much for every year of service up to a given maximum. Pensions for teachers' widows should be awarded on the same principle. I deem it indispensable that a Fund should be raised by *compulsory contributions*, and that it should be managed by the Board of Education, who alone have the necessary machinery to make its collection and distribution an easy matter. My own belief, fortified by the opinion of the leading teachers in my district is, that the establishment of such a Fund would confer great advantages; it would comfort the declining years of aged teachers worn out by good service; and it would offer an inducement to present teachers to continue in their occupation, and devote the best years of their life to teaching; and, further, it might attract into the teachers' ranks many more men of the best and most desirable type."

OBJECTION BY A CERTAIN CLASS OF TEACHERS TO CONTRIBUTE TO THE FUND.

4. Notwithstanding the great boon conferred upon teachers by the establishment of such a Fund for their benefit, a certain class of objectors has sought to create hostility to the Fund and to the mode of contributing to it. The agitation on the subject is being promoted by two small sections of the teachers of our Public Schools—those who do not intend to remain in the profession, but make use of it as a stepping stone to something else;* and those who are penurious or selfish. A third section, of the more thoughtful and devoted members of the profession, have, without due consideration, unwittingly given their countenance to this unwise and unjust agitation.

5. As to the necessity for this Fund, we would say, that so long as teachers devote their lives to a profession so generally underpaid as theirs is, so long will there be a necessity for either friends (if there be any, but who are often poor themselves), or the teachers themselves, to provide for the quiet and comfort of the declining years of their brethren, who, in less prosperous days, and with scanty remuneration, led the van in that calling in which they feel proud to follow. Even now, at the salary given to teachers (considering the increased cost of living) it is almost impossible to lay by a sum which would realize more than a few dollars a year. But by availing themselves of the provisions of the new Act, teachers can, on the payment of a small sum of two dollars each half year, secure an allowance for life, after their retirement from the profession, of six dollars a year for every year they may have taught school. For instance, if a teacher has been twenty-five years in the profession, and has complied with the law and regulations on the subject, he

*NOTE.—We have shown, in this Report, the pernicious influence of such teachers upon the schools. They lower the tone and *esprit* of the profession, are a fruitful cause of change in teachers, give a temporary and fugitive character to teaching, and thus bring discredit both upon the profession and the schools.

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will, on his retirement, be entitled to an allowance of \$150 a year for life, should the Fund permit it,—although, at four dollars a year, he will have only paid \$100 in all into the fund; if he has been twenty years teaching, he will secure an allowance of \$120 a year, although his total subscriptions for the twenty years have only been \$80 in all; if for fifteen years \$90, total subscriptions \$60 in all; and if for ten years \$60 a year, while he has only paid \$40 in all into the Fund. In other words, he will receive for his first year's pension fifty per cent. more than he has paid into the Fund altogether! These facts are irresistible, and only show what a boon the teachers are thoughtlessly throwing away in petitioning against their contributing to the Fund, as provided by law. For it should not be forgotten that, if the clause of the new law on the subject is repealed, the entire law on the subject will, no doubt, be swept away, and the \$6500 per annum now generously given to the old teachers by the Legislature, will be withdrawn. In that case teachers will be left to provide for their old age as they best can, or rather they will be left with no provision whatever for their retirement from the profession.

THE OLD TEACHERS KEEP DOWN THE GENERAL SCALE OF REMUNERATION.

6. There is another reason why, in the interests of the profession, the Superannuated Teachers' Fund should be sustained by them. Among the more than 5,000 teachers in Ontario, some hundreds are getting advanced in life, and many of them are even old and infirm. Because of their age and infirmity it is difficult to get employment, and yet, for want of means of support, they cannot retire and make way for younger men. The consequence is, that they offer their services at a very low rate, and thus find employment, to the exclusion of better teachers at a higher salary. Thus, in their need, they help to keep down the rate of remuneration, which would otherwise be paid to more active teachers, while they keep up a competition from which the other teachers are made to suffer. Would it not, therefore, be better for all parties concerned, that the younger teachers should provide for the honourable retirement of a section of their own profession grown grey in the service, and enfeebled by their sedentary life? This feature of the question has been pressed upon the attention of the Department, and we present it in the following extract from the letter of a highly respected inspector, who has felt the embarrassment arising from the existence of old teachers in his county. He says:—

"There are a few old teachers in this county who, perhaps, answered an important purpose in the teacher's calling twenty-five or thirty years ago, but whose stereotyped methods of procedure in the school-room are opposed to every kind of modern improvement in the art of teaching. It has become a serious matter with our Board of Examiners to know what is to be done with such teachers. They are poor, and have not yet made the necessary payments into the Superannuation Fund." He then asks if they can be placed on the Superannuation list, and desires other information on the subject, etc.

7. Now teachers will see that if (as has been the case for many years, when the matter was left to their voluntary action) they refuse to sustain the fund in the manner provided by law, they can neither expect to superannuate their older, worn-out brethren, nor can they, with any show of justice or propriety, ask the Legislature even to make the generous grant which it has done for the past few years, but which, it is well known, is quite inadequate for the maintenance of the fund. The agitation has raised the question of the very existence of the fund itself; and, if the younger teachers refuse to make the small sacrifice, in the interests of their profession, of paying two dollars every half year into the fund (from which they themselves will derive a substantial benefit), and in the maintenance of which they are interested, how can they expect the Legislature—which has recently so greatly raised the standard of their qualification, and incidentally of their emoluments—to provide for their retirement from the profession and support when they are worn out? In this view of the case, we think teachers have not sufficiently weighed the matter in this agitation, but we trust that they will be induced to do so, when they consider the foregoing facts.*

* NOTE.—An Inspector writing on this subject says:—

"It cannot be denied that the fund itself is a most excellent one, and that it has already proved a great boon to many members of the profession.

ON WHAT PRINCIPLE SHOULD THIS FUND BE SUPPORTED.

8. In reply to the question "on what principle should this fund be supported?" We answer, on the principle already laid down in its establishment, that of the mutual co-operation of the Teachers and the Government. This principle is one which commends itself to the judgment of teachers, and yet they have not carried it out. While the Government have generously contributed to the fund \$4,000 per annum, and have even increased the fund of late years to \$6,500 per annum, the teachers, as a body, have done nothing. An isolated case here and there of an expectant claimant on the fund does send in his \$4 a year, but the teachers, as a body, have failed to do their duty in the matter. Low salaries, selfishness, and a temporary interest in a profession which they did not mean to follow, have operated to produce this state of things. Now, however, the country is prosperous; salaries have been increased; this profession itself has been placed on a recognised footing, and it is right and proper for the Legislature, which has thus afforded facilities to elevate the teaching profession, to see that the old worn-out members of the profession shall be provided for, and not remain as a hindrance to progress.

SHOULD THE TEACHERS SUSTAIN THE SUPERANNUATED FUND?

9. We think we have already anticipated the answer to the question "Who should sustain this fund?" and, therefore, need not dwell upon it. In fact, the teachers have themselves answered it, but in a form which, in practice, would be felt by them to be onerous, if not oppressive. At a meeting of the Public School Teachers' Association of the Province of Ontario, held in 1869, a series of resolutions was passed, embodying certain amendments to the School Bill then before the Legislature. Amongst those agreed to by the Teachers' Association was the following one, which involved the very principle of *compulsion*, against which teachers now object:—"Each candidate, at his or her first examination for a certificate of qualification, shall deposit with the County Superintendent the sum of ten dollars, to be paid into the Superannuated Teachers' Fund, of which five dollars shall be refunded in case of failure." In other words that, before a teacher is in a position to earn one penny in his profession, he shall be compelled to pay ten dollars into the fund. How much easier to the teacher, more equitable in principle and better in every respect is the provision of the law (against which the agitation has been raised) that no one but members actually in the profession, who have derived their means of support from it, should be called upon to contribute to a fund intended for their support on their retirement from it? That this is felt by teachers to be the case, we learn from the following resolution, which was recently agreed to at a Convention of Teachers for the West Riding of the County of Durham:—

"Resolved that we hear with sorrow that an effort is being made to repeal the clause

"It cannot be denied that it will prove a great pecuniary advantage to every teacher who makes teaching a profession, and not a stepping stone to something else, and for these alone the fund is intended.

"It cannot be reasonably denied that it is as just to impose a license upon teachers, as upon lawyers, hotel-keepers, auctioneers, pedlars or dry goods merchants, and let the grumblers just compare for a moment the paltry \$4 license of the teacher with some other licenses which frequently reach \$100 per annum. Moreover the teacher's hardships sink into insignificance when it is stated that his license, when paid, is invested at interest for his benefit in old age, and along with it \$6,500 a year added by the Government.

"It cannot be denied that the very Act which imposes the license, by raising the standard of qualification and thus limiting the supply, has already had or will soon have the effect of raising the salaries of teachers by an increase ten times as great as the license imposed.

"It cannot be denied that this agitation originated with, and is now chiefly carried on by those Teachers who have adopted teaching not as a profession, but as a temporary expediency. They are generally smart men possessing a tolerably fair opinion of themselves, and evincing a large amount of cleverness and success in obtaining the most lucrative situations in advance of the really professional teacher. The Superannuated Fund was never intended for such; and they are the last that should find fault with a profession that serves them so good a turn, or malign those legislators who have with the greatest wisdom and liberality made this noble provision for the meritorious teacher in his old age, and who are endeavouring to raise the profession to a respectability that will induce clever men to adopt teaching as the business of their lives again. Again they complain that the license is compulsory, of course it is. But it is no more compulsory than other licenses, and teaching is not compulsory. If they do not choose to pay the license to teach, they are at liberty to buy an hotel-keeper's license, or an auctioneer's license, or to follow some pursuit that requires no license.

"I have had the pleasure of conversing with several gentlemen of position outside the profession, on this subject, and all argue that the Fund is a good one, that the four dollar license is not an insult, and that the present agitation is impolitic and against the best interests of the profession."

in reference to the Superannuated Fund, and that we feel a debt of gratitude to Dr. Ryerson for the introduction of said clause, believing it to be one of the most beneficial amendments in the New School Act."

OFFICIAL REGULATIONS IN REGARD TO THE SUPERANNUATION FUND.*

10. The regulations for the administration of the Superannuated Teachers' Fund, adopted by the Council of Public Instruction, are as follows:—

(1.) Teachers who became superannuated, or worn out, on or *before* the first day of January, 1854, and who produce the proofs required by law, of character and services as such, may share in this Fund according to the number of years they have respectively taught a Public School in Ontario, by depositing with the Chief Superintendent of Education, the preliminary subscriptions to the Fund required by law.

(2.) Every Teacher engaged in teaching *since* 1854, in order to be entitled, when he shall have become superannuated or worn out, to share in this Fund, must have contributed to it at the rate of five dollars per annum for each year, from the time when he began to teach, up to the time of his first annual subscription of four dollars (as required by the statute), for each subsequent year during which he was engaged in teaching. No subscriptions, either for arrears or otherwise, can be received from those who have ceased to teach, [and in all cases the annual payment, unless made within the year for which it is due, will be at the rate of five dollars.]

(3.) No Teacher shall be eligible to receive a pension from this Fund, who shall not have become disabled for further service, while teaching a Public School, or who shall not have been worn out in the work of a Public School Teacher.

(4.) All applications must be accompanied with the requisite certificates and proofs, according to the prescribed form and instructions. No certificate in favour of an applicant should be signed by any Teacher already admitted as a pensioner on the Fund.

(5.) In case the Fund shall at any time not be sufficient to pay the several claimants the highest sum permitted by law, the income shall be equitably divided among them, according to their respective periods of service.

* NOTE.—APPLICATION FOR PENSION AS A SUPERANNUATED OR WORN OUT TEACHER.—(Minute No. 322.)

(Post Office.)

(Date.)

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The undersigned, an applicant for aid from the Superannuated or Worn out Teachers' Fund, hereby respectfully represents to the Chief Superintendent of Education—

1. That he is years of age.
2. That he was born (state the Country of birth) in , in the year one thousand eight hundred and
3. That he commenced the profession of teaching in Church.
4. That he is connected with the
5. That he commenced teaching a Public School in Ontario, in School Section number , in the Township of , County of , in the year one thousand eight hundred and
6. That he has held certificates of qualification from , and that last certificate is from the Board of Examiners for , is dated , and is for the class.
7. That since he commenced teaching in the Province, he has been engaged as a teacher in the following places:
8. That he has taught a Public School in Ontario for the full period of years, and has subscribed to the fund for the years
9. That he has become disabled or worn out while in the work of teaching, and is unable to teach a school any longer.
10. That he ceased teaching the Public School in Section No. , in the Township of County of , on the day of , 18 , and that he has not since been employed as a Public School Teacher.
11. That he, having become, in terms of the Act, incapacitated by infirmity from further service as a Public School Teacher, he respectfully applies for a pension from the Superannuated Public School Teachers' Fund.

(Sign name in full.)

REMARKS.—The foregoing application must be filled up in every particular, and be accompanied with satisfactory evidence on the following points:—

1. Of the good moral character, and sober steady habits, of the applicant.
2. Of the length of time such applicant has been engaged in teaching in Ontario, and for which he asks a pension.
3. From medical testimony, according to the prescribed form, that the applicant is unable to pursue that profession any longer.

(6.) Communications and subscriptions in connection with this Fund, are to be sent to the Chief Superintendent of Education.

V.—COMPREHENSIVE COURSE OF STUDY FOR THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

1. In dealing with this most important question, and in laying down a few general rules in regard to it, the following weighty words of the Bishop of Manchester, in his admirable report on the "School Systems of the United States and Canada," are highly suggestive:—

"The mistake that is commonly made in America, is one, I fear, that is taking some root in England—a confusion of thought between the processes that convey knowledge, and the processes that develop mental power, and a tendency to confine the work of the school too exclusively to the former. It is, perhaps, the inevitable tendency of an age of material prosperity and utilitarian ideas. Of course, the processes of education are carried on through *media* that convey information too, and a well educated man, if not necessarily is, at any rate, almost necessarily *becomes* a well informed man. But in my sense of things, the work of education has been successfully accomplished when a scholar has learnt just three things—what he really *does* know, what he does *not* know, and *how* knowledge is in each case acquired; in other words, education is the development and training of *faculties*, rather than to use a favourite American word, the "presentation" to the mind of *facts*. What was Aristotle's conception of the man whom he calls—"thoroughly educated?" Not, I take it, a man of encyclopaedic information, but a man of perfectly trained and well-balanced mind, able to apply to any subject that may occupy his attention, its proper methods, and to draw from it its legitimate conclusions. Hence the proper functions of a sound system of education are to quicken the observation, strengthen the memory, discipline the reason, cultivate the taste; and that is the best system which gives to each faculty of our complex nature its just and proportionate development."

2. In the programme of studies, and limit table, adopted after due consideration, for our Schools in Ontario, the subjects essential to a good Public School education are prescribed and classified, as also the number of hours per week of teaching each subject; but the mode or modes of teaching and illustrating the several subjects specified in order, is left to the independent exercise of the genius and talents of each teacher. In preparing this programme, the Reports of the latest Royal Commissioners of England on Popular Education, and the opinions of the most experienced educationists, have been consulted. It will be seen from the number and order of the subjects, and the time prescribed per week for teaching each of them, that the first years of Common School studies are almost entirely devoted to teaching the three primary and fundamental subjects of a good education—reading, writing and arithmetic, including only such other subjects and to such a degree, as to relieve the pupils from the tedium of the more severe and less attractive studies, and to develop their faculties of observation and taste for knowledge, as suggested by the largest experience of the most advanced educators. The subjects of the programme are limited in both number and range to what is considered essential, and to what experience has proved can be thoroughly mastered by pupils of ordinary capacity and diligence within thirteen years of age. The thorough teaching of a few subjects, within practical limits, will do more for intellectual development, and for the purposes of practical life, than the skimming over a wide range of topics. The subjects of Natural Science required by the thirteenth section of the new School Act to be taught in the schools and provided in the programme, are such, and are prescribed to such an extent only, as is absolutely necessary for the advancement of the country,—in agriculture, the mechanical arts, and manufactures, apart from science and literature. And when the cheap and excellent text-books prescribed are examined in connexion with the subjects specified, it will be found that nothing has been introduced which is impracticable, or for mere show, but everything for practical use, and that which admits of easy accomplishments.

EDUCATION DIRECTED TOWARDS THE PURSUITS AND OCCUPATIONS OF A PEOPLE.

On this subject, Dr. Playfair gives the following striking illustration. He goes on to say:—

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"The great advantage of directing education towards the pursuits and occupations of the people, instead of wasting it on dismal verbalism, is that, while it elevates the individual, it at the same time gives security for the future prosperity of the nation. There are instances of nations rich in natural resources of industry, yet poor from the want of knowledge, how to apply them; and there are opposite examples of nations utterly devoid of industrial advantages, but constituted of an educated people who use their science as a compensation for their lack of raw material. Spain is an example of the first class, and Holland of the second. Spain, indeed, is wonderfully instructive, and her story is well told by Buckle, for you see her rise in glory or fall in shame, just as there are conditions of intellectual activity or torpor among her inhabitants. Sometimes animated with life, Spain seeks a high position among nations; at other times she is in a death-like torpor. She is an apt illustration of that sentence: 'He that wandereth out of the way of understanding, shall remain in the congregation of the dead.' The Jews brought into Spain their habits of industry, and later, the Moors introduced the experience and science of their time; and they took root even in a country devastated by wars between Christians and Mahomedans. But Spain committed two great national crimes—the expulsion of the Jews at one time, and of the residue of the Moors at another. The last crime of 1609, by which 1,000,000 of Moriscos were thrust forth from the kingdom, was avenged by suddenly depriving Spain of the accumulated industrial experience and science of centuries. After that act, education was only allowed so far as it did not interfere with ecclesiastical fears, and the country fell into a state of abject misery and dejection. A century after, the Duke de St. Simon, then French ambassador at Madrid, declared that science in Spain is a crime, and ignorance a virtue. During the next century, there was a period of three generations when foreign science and experience were imported by the Spanish kings, and the country began to rise again to some condition of education and prosperity. But in the last half-century it has relapsed, ecclesiastical power having again assumed its old sway, and Spain has returned to a position of obscurity, from which, let us hope, she may emerge by her late revolution. For this nation has everything in the richest profusion to make it great and prosperous. Washed both by the Atlantic and Mediterranean, with noble harbours, she might command an extensive commerce both with Europe and America. Few countries have such riches in the natural resources of industry. A rich soil and almost tropical luxuriance of vegetation might make her a great food-exporting nation. Iron and coal, copper, quicksilver and lead abound in profusion, but these do not create industries, unless the people possess knowledge to apply them. When that knowledge prevailed, Spain was indeed among the most advanced of industrial nations. Not only her metallurgic industries, but her cotton, woollen and silk manufactures were unequalled; her shipbuilding also was the admiration of other nations. But all have decayed because science withers among an uneducated people, and without science nations cannot thrive. Turn to Holland, once a mere province of Spain. She has nothing but a maritime position to give her any natural advantage. Not so bad, indeed, as Voltaire's statement, that she is a land formed from the sand brought up on the sounding-leads of English sailors, though she is actually created from the debris of Swiss and German mountains brought down by the Rhine. Hence within her lands are no sources of mineral wealth; but she has compensated for its absence by an admirable education of her people. For my own country, I have no ambition higher than to get schools approaching in excellence to those of Holland. And so this mud-produced country, fenced round by dykes to prevent the ocean from sweeping it away, is thriving, prosperous and happy, while her old mistress—Spain—is degraded and miserable, unable in all Europe until lately to find a King who would undertake to govern her ignorant people."

THE NEW SUBJECTS OF AGRICULTURE, COMMERCIAL INSTRUCTION, MECHANICS, DRAWING, PRACTICAL SCIENCES AND NATURAL HISTORY.

1. I may remark that one great object of the new School Act was to make our Public Schools more directly and effectively subservient to the interests of agriculture, manufactures and mechanics.

2. In my first special report on "a system of Public Elementary Education for Up-

per Canada," laid before the Legislature in 1846, I stated the institutions necessary for these purposes; and in the concluding remarks of my last two annual reports, I have expressed strong convictions on the subject. When we consider the network of railroads which are intersecting, as well as extending from one end to the other of our country, the various important manufactures which are springing up in our cities, towns and villages, and the mines which are beginning to be worked, and which admit of indefinite development, provision should undoubtedly be made for educating our own mechanical and civil engineers, and chief workers in mechanics and mines; but I here speak of the more elementary part of the work of practical education, which should be given in the ordinary Public Schools.

3. It must be admitted that though the general organization of our Public School System is much approved, and although the schools themselves have improved; yet that the knowledge acquired in them is very meagre—extending for practical purposes very little, and in many cases not at all, beyond what have been termed the three R's—Reading, 'Riting and 'Rithmetic, and that rather elementary. If the system of schools cannot be greatly improved, what is taught in the schools should be greatly advanced and extended, I entirely agree with the Hon. Mr. Carling, Commissioner of Agriculture, who, in a late able report, remarks:—

"Notwithstanding the great advancement we have made within a period comparatively short, I have a growing conviction that something more is required to give our education a more decidedly practical character, especially in reference to the agricultural and mechanical classes of the community, which comprise the great bulk of the population, and constitute the principal means of our wealth and prosperity. What now appears to be more specially needed in carrying forward this great work is, in addition to the ordinary instruction in Common Schools, the introduction of the elementary instruction in what may be termed the foundation principles of agricultural and mechanical science."

4. These views, to a limited extent, have been successfully acted upon in our Normal and Model Schools, but I propose to carry them into more certain and general operation, by the additional Lectureship in the Normal School, which has been established for the special purpose of preparing teachers to teach the subjects indicated in the Public and High Schools, and to make the teaching of them a part of the programme of instruction in our Public Schools. We have, already, in the Educational Museum the specimens of models necessary for a school of both the fine and some of the mechanical arts; and I trust there will soon be supplemented Schools of mechanical and civil engineering, if not of architecture, as also of manufactures and agriculture. But what I have said relates to the elementary education which may be imparted on these subjects in the Public and High Schools.

THE WAY IN WHICH THIS INSTRUCTION SHOULD BE GIVEN.

1. As to the only way in which instruction in these subjects should be given, we quote the following strikingly forcible language of Dr. Lyon Playfair on the subject. He says:

"The pupil must be brought in face of the facts through experiment and demonstration. He should pull the plant to pieces, and see how it is constructed. He must vex the electric cylinder till it yields him its sparks. He must apply with his own hand the magnet to the needle. He must see water broken up into its constituent parts, and witness the violence with which its elements unite. Unless he is brought into actual contact with the facts, and taught to observe and bring them into relation with the science evolved from them, it were better that instruction in science should be left alone. For one of the first lessons he must learn from science is not to trust in authority, but to demand proof for each asseveration. All this is true education, for it draws out faculties of observation, connects observed facts with the conceptions deduced from them in the course of ages, gives discipline and courage to thought, and teaches a knowledge of scientific method which will serve a life time. Nor can such education be begun too early. The whole yearnings of a child are for the natural phenomena around, until they are smothered by the ignorance of the parent. He is a young Linnæus roaming over the fields in search

"of flowers. He is a young conchologist or mineralogist gathering shells or pebbles on the sea shore. He is an ornithologist, and goes bird nesting; an ichthyologist, and catches fish. Glorious education in nature, all this, if the teacher knew how to direct and utilize it. The present system is truly ignoble, for it sends the working man into the world in gross ignorance of everything that he has to do in it. The utilitarian system is noble in so far as it treats him as an intelligent being who ought to understand the nature of his occupation, and the principles involved in it. If you bring up a ploughman in utter ignorance of everything relating to the food of plants, of every mechanical principle of farm implements, of the weather to which he is exposed, of the sun that shines upon him, and makes the plants to grow, of the rain which, while it drenches him, refreshes the crops around, is that ignorance conducive to his functions as an intelligent being? All nations which have in recent years revised their educational systems, have provided a class of Secondary Schools for the industrial classes, especially devoted to teach them the principles of science and art relating to their industries. Holland compels every town of 10,000 inhabitants to erect such schools."

NECESSITY FOR TEACHING PRACTICAL SCIENCE IN THE SCHOOLS—EXAMPLES.

1. What Dr. Lyon Playfair has remarked, in an opening address to the Educational Section of the Social Science Congress held last year at Newcastle, in regard to English Elementary Schools and the teaching of practical science in them, applies largely to Canada:

"The educational principle of Continental nations is to link on primary schools to secondary improvement schools. The links are always composed of higher subjects, the three R's being in all cases the basis of instruction; elementary science, and even some of its applications, is uniformly encouraged and generally enforced. But as we have on schools corresponding to the secondary improvement schools for the working classes, we suppose we can do without, used as links. No armour-plate of knowledge is given to our future artisan but a mere veneer of the three R's, so thin as to rub off completely in three or four years of the wear and tear of life. Under our present system of elementary teaching, no knowledge whatever, bearing on the life-work of a people, reaches them by our system of State Education. The air they breathe, the water they drink, the tools they use, the plants they grow, the mines they excavate, might all be made the subjects of surpassing interest and importance to them during their whole life; yet of these they learn not one fact. Yet we are surprised at the consequences of their ignorance. A thousand men perish yearly in our coal mines, but no school master tells the poor miner the nature of the explosive gas which scorches him, or of the after damp which chokes him. Boilers and steam-engines blow up so continually that a Committee of the House of Commons is now engaged in trying to diminish their alarming frequency, but the poor stokers who are scalded to death, or blown to pieces, were never instructed in the nature and properties of them. In Great Britain alone more than one hundred thousand people perish annually, and at least five times as many sicken grievously, out of pure ignorance of the laws of health, which are never taught them at school."

2. In regard to the study of Natural Science in the Schools, the Royal Commissioners appointed to enquire into systems of Schools, say:—

"We think it established that the study of Natural Science develops better than any other studies the observing faculties, disciplines the intellect by teaching induction as well as deduction, supplies a useful balance to the studies of language and mathematics, and provides much instruction of great value for the occupations of after life."

THE STUDY OF NATURAL HISTORY IN THE SCHOOLS.

1. In further illustration of this subject, I beg to add a few words by Professor Agassiz, formerly a distinguished teacher in Switzerland, lately a more distinguished professor in the United States. In an address at an educational meeting in Boston "on the desirability of introducing the study of natural history into our Schools, and of using that instruction as a means of developing the faculties of children and leading them to a knowledge of the Creator," Professor Agassiz observes:

"I wish to awaken a conviction that the knowledge of nature in our days lies at the very foundation of the prosperity of States; that the study of the phenomena of nature is one of the most efficient means for the development of the human faculties, and that, on these grounds, it is highly important that this branch of education should be introduced into our Schools as soon as possible. To satisfy you how important the study of nature is to the community at large, I need only allude to the manner in which, in modern times, man has learned to control the forces of nature, and to work out the material which our earth produces. The importance of that knowledge is everywhere manifested to us. And I can refer to no better evidence to prove that there is hardly any other training better fitted to develop the highest faculties of man than by alluding to that venerable old man, Humboldt, who was the embodiment of the most extensive human knowledge in our day, who acquired that position, and became an object of reverence throughout the world, merely by his devotion to the study of nature. If it be true then, that a knowledge of nature is so important for the welfare of States and for the training of men to such high positions among their fellows, by the development of their best faculties, how desirable that such a study should form part of all education! And I trust that the time when it will be introduced into our Schools will only be so far removed as is necessary for the preparation of teachers capable of imparting that instruction in the most elementary form. The only difficulty is to find teachers equal to the task, for, in my estimation, the elementary instruction is the most difficult. It is a mistaken view with many, that a teacher is always efficiently prepared to impart the first elementary instruction to those entrusted to his care. Nothing can be further from the truth; and I believe that in entrusting the education of the young to incompetent teachers, the opportunity is frequently lost of unfolding the highest capacities of the pupils, by not attending at once to their wants. I have been a teacher since I was fifteen years of age, and I am a teacher still, and I hope I shall be a teacher all my life. I do love to teach; and there is nothing so pleasant to me as to develop the faculties of my fellow beings who, in their early age, are entrusted to my care; and I am satisfied that there are branches of knowledge which are better taught without books than with them; and there are some cases so obvious, that I wonder why it is that teachers always resort to books when they would teach some new branch in their schools.—When we would study natural history, instead of books let us take specimens—stones, minerals, crystals. When we would study plants, let us go to the plants themselves, and not to the books describing them. When we would study animals, let us observe animals."

2. Thomas Carlyle wrote,—“For many years it has been one of my constant regrets, that no schoolmaster of mine had a knowledge of natural history, so far, at least, as to have taught me the little winged and wingless neighbours that are continually meeting me with a salutation which I cannot answer, as things are; but there will come a day when, in all Scottish towns and villages, the schoolmasters will be strictly required to possess such capabilities.”

THE VALUE OF DRAWING IN OUR SCHOOLS.

1. So important and necessary was drawing (which is now prescribed in our Schools), felt to be, as a branch of learning, that in 1870, the Legislature of Massachusetts passed the following law on the subject:

“The General Statutes are hereby amended so as to include Drawing among the branches of learning which are by said Section required to be taught in the Public Schools.

“Any City or Town may, and every City and Town having more than ten thousand inhabitants shall, annually make provision for giving free instruction in Industrial or Mechanical Drawing, to persons over fifteen years of age, either in day or evening schools, under the direction of the School Committee.”

2. On this enactment, the Secretary of the Board of Massachusetts remarks:

“This is one of the most important laws of the Session of 1870, and is destined, I

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"doubt not, to produce lasting and beneficial results. It will not, therefore, be out of place, to give a brief account of the steps which led to its enactment. * * *

"In response to a petition presented to the Legislature, in June, 1869, by several of the leading citizens of Boston, a Resolve was passed directing the Board of Education "to consider the expediency of making provision by law for giving free instruction to "men, women, and children in mechanical drawing, either [in existing schools, or those "to be established for that purpose, in all the towns in the Commonwealth having more "than five thousand inhabitants, and report a definite plan therefor to the next general "Court."

"The Board cordially entered upon the task thus committed to them. * * * * "The Petition and Resolves were referred to a Special Committee, with instructions to "make such enquiries as they deemed advisable, and report their conclusions for the "consideration of the whole Board. This resulted in the issuing of a circular, asking for "the opinions of gentlemen connected with the various mechanical and manufacturing "industries of the Commonwealth, of others familiar with the workings of our system of "Public Instruction, and especially of gentlemen eminent for their skill and experience in "this particular department of instruction.

"The communications received were presented to the Board, accompanied by a brief "and able report. The report presented met with the unanimous approval of the Board, "and it was voted to recommend to the Legislature the following action, to wit:

"That a law be passed requiring: 'First, that elementary and freehand drawing be "taught in all the Public Schools of every grade in the Commonwealth; and, Second, "that all Cities and Towns having more than ten thousand inhabitants be required to "make provision for giving annually, free instruction in industrial or mechanical drawing "to men, women, and children in such manner as the Board of Education shall prescribe."

"The recommendations were favourably received by the Legislature, and embodied in "the foregoing Act, and in an Order of the House of Representatives to print in pamphlet "form two thousand copies of such of the communications above named as the Board "should designate."

"These are papers of rare value, treating of the subject of drawing in its relation to "general education, to our various mechanical and manufacturing industries, to high culture "in art, and indicating the most approved methods of teaching it, both in the Public "Schools, and in special classes."

3. The English Commissioners in their report thus summarise the opinions of those gentlemen examined by them in regard to the subject of Drawing. They say:

"Mr. Stanton remarks that 'whether we regard it as a means of refinement, or as an "education for the eye, teaching it to appreciate form, or as strengthening habits of "accurate observation, or again as of direct utility for many professions and trades, it is "equally admirable.' Dr. Hodgson stated it as his opinion that 'drawing should be "taught to every child as soon as he went to school, and added that it was already taught "to all the boys (nearly 1,000) in the Liverpool Institute.' From Mr. Samuelson's letter "to the Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education, drawing appears to be "always regarded as a most important subject of instruction in the technical schools on the "continent; and the bearing of this on the excellence ascribed to the foreign artisans and "superintendents of labour cannot be mistaken."

PROVISION FOR TEACHING VOCAL MUSIC IN OUR SCHOOLS.

1. Vocal music being now required to be taught in our Schools, we insert the following striking illustration of its value and importance as a softening and humanizing influence as a subject of instruction, from the report of the Secretary of the Board of Education in Connecticut, for this year. It will be seen how successfully he combats the statement so often put forth that instruction in vocal music is of no practical use to large numbers of children, because of their inability to sing. He says:

"Music is taught in our best Schools and should be in all. In many instances it has "taken its proper place as one of the regular studies. It is the testimony of multitudes

"of Teachers, that music helps instead of hindering progress in other studies. It stimulates the mental faculties and exhilarates and recreates pupils, when weary with study. Some branches are pursued largely for the mental discipline which they impart. No study that can be taken up too early, is a better discipline in rapid observation and thinking; none so early and easily develops the essential power of mental concentration. In singing by note, a child must fix his thoughts and think quickly and accurately. The habit of fixing the attention thus early formed, will aid in all other studies. There is abundant testimony that Scholars progress more rapidly in the common branches, where singing is taught. Vocal music aids in graceful reading, by promoting better articulation, improving the voice and correcting hard and unpleasant tones. The influence in cultivating the sensibilities, improving the taste and developing the better feelings of our nature, amply compensate for the time required for this study. Its efficacy in School Government, making work a play, giving a systematic recreation—enjoyed the more because always in concert, and with the sympathy and stimulus of companionship—is admitted by the most successful Teachers. Trouble in the school-room often comes from that restlessness, which proper intervals of singing would best relieve. Singing is a healthful, physical exercise. In primary schools, gymnastic exercises often accompany the singing. When children are trained to erectness of posture, and to the right use of the vocal organs, speaking, reading and singing are most invigorating exercises; expanding the chest, promoting deep breathing, quickening the circulation, and arousing both the physical and mental energies. Diseases of the respiratory organs, are the great scourge of this climate, and occasion more than one-fifth of our mortality. It is said that in New England and New York, more than forty thousand die annually of diseases of the throat and lungs. The remarkable exemption of the German people, alike in Germany and America, from pulmonary disease, is attributed, by eminent medical authority, largely to the universal habit of singing, in which they are trained from their earliest years, both at home and at school. Thus their lungs are expanded and invigorated. The broad chest is a national characteristic. There is a common but erroneous impression that only a favoured few can learn music. How is it then that every child in Germany is taught singing as regularly as reading? But facts may be found nearer home. In late examinations of all the schools in New Haven, 'only two hundred and forty-eight children out of over six thousand were found unable to sing the scale, and 'one hundred and forty of these belonged to the primary grades; that is, out of this multitude, only one hundred and eight above the primary grades could not sing. Superintendent Parish, says: 'A systematic course of training the voices of the little ones in the primary rooms, has been commenced. Thus far the experiment has been a complete success. Children from five to eight years of age, readily sing the scale, singly and in concert, and read from the blackboard, notes on the staff by numerals and syllables with as little hesitation as they call the letters and words of their reading lesson.' In the Hancock School of Boston, of about one thousand girls, less than a dozen were unfitted from all causes for attaining to a fair degree of success in singing. General Eaton, the National Commissioner of Education, and Governor English, when visiting the schools in New Haven, expressed their surprise and gratification at hearing children in the primary schools, sing at sight exercises marked on the black-board by the Teacher. 'The exercises are placed on the black-board in the presence of the scholars, and they are required to sing them once through without the aid of Teacher or instrument, and are marked accordingly.'

FACILITIES FOR GIVING A PRACTICAL COMMERCIAL EDUCATION IN THE SCHOOLS.

One of the felt wants in our system of Public and High Schools, has been facilities for giving boys instruction in matters relating to Commercial and business transactions. That want has been supplied; and both in the High and Public School Law provision has been made for giving pupils instruction in subjects relating to Commercial education. For years this subject has received attention in Model School of Ontario, and boys have been thoroughly prepared in book-keeping and other kindred branches, so as to fit them at once for practical work in the counting-house and other departments of mercantile life. The result has been, that boys trained there, have been much sought after by merchants

and others. In the Schools generally, beyond a little theoretical book-keeping, no special attention has been hitherto paid to commercial subjects; but in the new programme of study prescribed for the Schools, pupils are required:

"1. To be practically acquainted with Compound and Conjoined Proportion, and with Commercial Arithmetic, including Practice, Percentage, Insurance, Commission, Brokerage, Purchase and Sale of Stock, Custom House Business, Assessment of Taxes and Interest.

"2. To know the definition of the various account books used. To understand the relation between Dr. and Cr., and the difference between Single and Double Entry.

"3. To know how to make original entries in the books used for this purpose, such as Invoice Book, Sales Book, Cash Book and Day Book.

"4. To be able to journalize any ordinary transaction, and to be familiar with the nature of the various accounts in the Ledger, and with the mode of conducting and closing them.

"5. To be familiar with the forms of ordinary Commercial paper, such as Promissory Notes, Drafts, Receipts for the payment of money, &c.

"6. In the English Course for the High Schools, pupils are required to be acquainted with Commercial forms and usages, and with practical Telegraphy."

VI.—PROVIDING ADEQUATE SCHOOL ACCOMMODATION.

1. The new School Act very properly declares that Trustees "shall provide adequate accommodations for all the children of school age [i.e., between the ages of five and twenty-one years, resident] in their school division." (i.e., school section, city, town, or village.) [It also provides that "no school section shall be formed which shall contain less than fifty resident children, between the ages of 5 and 16 years, unless the area of such section shall contain more than four square miles." These "accommodations," to be adequate, should include (as prescribed by the special regulations)—

(1.) A site of an acre in extent, but not less than half an acre.*

(2.) A school-house (with separate rooms, where the number of pupils exceeds fifty), the walls of which shall not be less than ten feet high in the clear, and which shall not contain less than nine square feet on the floor for each child in attendance, so as to allow an area in each room, for at least one hundred cubic feet of air for each child.† It shall also be sufficiently warmed and ventilated, and the premises properly drained.

(3.) A sufficient fence or paling round the school premises.

(4.) A play-ground, or other satisfactory provision for physical exercise, within the fences, and off the road.

(5.) A well, or other means of procuring water for the school.

(6.) Proper and separate offices for both sexes, at some little distance from the school-house, and suitably enclosed.

(7.) Suitable school furniture and apparatus, viz.: desks, seats, blackboards, maps, library, presses and books, etc., necessary for the efficient conduct of the school.

2. In his official visitations to the schools, the Inspector is required to inquire into the tenure of the property; the materials, dimensions, and plan of the building; its condition; when erected; with what funds built; how lighted, warmed, and ventilated; if any class rooms are provided for the separate instruction of part of the children; if there is a lobby, or closet, for hats, cloaks, bonnets, book-presses, &c.; how the desks and

* *Site of School Grounds.*—The school grounds, wherever practicable, should, in the rural sections, embrace an acre in extent, and not less than half an acre, so as to allow the school-house to be set well back from the road, and furnish play-grounds within the fences. A convenient form for school grounds will be found to be an area of ten rods front by sixteen rods deep, with the school-house set back four or six rods from the road. The grounds should be strongly fenced, the yards and outhouses in the rear of the school, house being invariably separated by a high and tight board fence; the front grounds being planted with shade trees and shrubs. For a small school, an area of eight rods front by ten rods deep may be sufficient, the school-house being set back four rods from the front.

† Thus, for instance, a room for fifty children would require space for 5,000 cubic feet of air. This would be equal to a cube of the following dimensions in feet, viz.: 25×20×10, which is equivalent to a room 25 feet long by 20 wide and 10 feet high.

seats are arranged and constructed ; what arrangements for the teacher ; what play-ground is provided ; what gymnastic apparatus (if any) ; whether there be a well, and proper conveniences for private purposes ; and if the premises are fenced or open on the street or road ; if shade trees and any shrubs or flowers are planted.

3. In his inquiries in these matters, the Inspector is especially directed to see whether the law and regulations have been complied with in regard to the following matters : (should he discover remissness in any of them, he is directed to call the attention of the trustees to it, before withholding the school fund from the section, with a view to its remedy before his next half-yearly visit) :—

(1.) *Size of Section.*—As to the size of the school section, as prescribed by the fifteenth section of the School Law of 1871.

(2.) *School Accommodation.*—Whether the trustees have provided “adequate accommodation for all children of school age [i.e., between the ages of five and twenty-one years, residents] in their school division,” [i.e., school section, city, town, or village], as required by the second section of the School Act of 1871.

(3.) *Space for air.*—Whether the required space of nine square feet for each pupil, and the average space of one hundred cubic feet of air for each child have been allowed in the construction of the school house and its class-rooms.

(4.) *Well ; Proper Conveniences.*—Whether a well or other means of procuring water is provided ; also, whether there are proper conveniences for private purposes of both sexes on the premises.

4. The Trustees having made such provision relative to the School-house and its appendages, as are required by the fourth clause of the twenty-seventh section, and the seventh clause of the seventy-ninth section of the Consolidated School Act, and as provided in regulation 9 of the “Duties of Trustees,” it is made by the Regulation, the duty of the Master to give strict attention to the proper ventilation and temperature,* as well as to the cleanliness of the School-house ; he shall also prescribe such rules for the use of the yard and out-buildings connected with the School-house, as will insure their being kept in a neat and proper condition ; and he shall be held responsible for any want of cleanliness about the premises. He is also required to see that the yards, sheds, privies, and other out-buildings are kept in order, and that the School-house and premises are locked at all proper times ; and that all deposits of sweepings, from rooms or yards, are removed from the premises.

PROCEEDINGS IN OTHER COUNTRIES IN REGARD TO SCHOOL ACCOMMODATION.

1. In England “the (Parliamentary) Grant is withheld altogether.—If the school be not in a building certified by the Inspector, to be healthy, properly lighted, drained and ventilated, supplied with offices, and containing in the principal school-room at least 80 cubical feet of internal area per each child in average attendance.”

2. In the N. Y. State Report for 1868, we learn that : “In regard to the changes made in the School-houses of Onondago County, four districts, after being notified that their School-houses would be condemned as unfit for school purposes, unless soon repaired or new ones built, have gone to work with a good will, and now have, in each of these districts, houses which are ornaments and an honour to the men whose influence and steady toiling caused the old unfit habitations to give place to the new.”

3. In Section 29 of the New School Act for Nova Scotia, (many details of which are copied from our Acts) passed in May, 1871, the following are the provisions, in regard to School Accommodation. They are even more comprehensive and minute than ours :—

“The school accommodation to be provided by the district [school section] shall “as far as possible, be in accordance with the following arrangements :—

“For a district having fifty pupils or under, a house with comfortable sittings, with “one teacher.

* *NOTE.*—Temperature.—In winter the temperature during the first school hour in the forenoon or afternoon should not exceed 70°, nor 66° during the rest of the day.

"For a district having from fifty to eighty pupils, a house with comfortable sittings and a good class-room, with one teacher and an assistant."

"For a district having from eighty to one hundred pupils, a house with comfortable sittings and two good class-rooms, with one teacher and two assistants, or a house having two apartments, one for an elementary and one for an advanced department, with two teachers: Or if one commodious building cannot be secured, two houses may be provided in different parts of the district, with a teacher in each, one being devoted to the younger children, and the other to the more advanced."

"For a district having from one hundred to one hundred and fifty pupils, a house with two adequate apartments, one for an elementary and one for an advanced department, and a good class-room accessible to both; with two teachers, and, if necessary, an assistant; or if the district be long and narrow, three houses may be provided, two for elementary departments, and one for an advanced department, the former being located towards the extremes of the district, and the latter at or near the centre."

"For a district having from one hundred and fifty to two hundred pupils, a house with three apartments, one for an elementary, one for an advanced, and one for a High School, and at least one good class-room common to the two latter, with three teachers, and, if necessary, an assistant; or if necessary, schools may be provided for the different departments in different parts of the district."

"And generally, for any district having two hundred pupils and upwards, a house or houses with sufficient accommodation for different grades of elementary and advanced schools, so that in districts having six hundred pupils and upwards, the ratio of pupils in the elementary, advanced and High School departments, shall be respectively about eight, three, and one."

4. In Nova Scotia, the Board of School Examiners appointed for each district by the Governor in Council, is authorized by law "To declare upon the Inspector's report, or upon other reliable information, the School-house, or houses or buildings used as such, unfit for school purposes, and shall forward such declaration to the trustees of the section, and the Board shall thereafter withhold all Provincial aid from any such section, if measures are not adopted whereby a suitable house or houses may be provided, according to the ability of the section." From the regulations of the Council of Public Instruction on this subject, we make the following extracts:—"As to the size and commodiousness of the building, provision should be made for one-quarter of the population of the section; and whatever that number may be, the School-house should be of such capacity as to furnish to each scholar at least 150 cubic feet of pure atmospheric air, or seven square feet of superficial area, with ceiling running from 13 to 16 feet in height."

"The American mode of arranging the seats in School-houses is now almost unanimously admitted to be the best (see plans). By this plan the teacher is enabled to have his eye upon every pupil, and every pupil to have his eye upon the teacher. According to this method, and allowing for the length either 6 or 8 feet for entrance hall, 4 to 5 feet for teacher's platform, 4 to 5 feet between the platform and desks, and 2 feet 6 or 9 inches (according to the size of pupils) for each desk and seat together, and allowing 2 feet for the aisles, from 3 feet 6 inches to 4 feet, in graded schools, for each desk, and at least two feet for divisions between rows of desks, the following divisions will furnish accommodation for the number of scholars prefixed:—

"Plans.	}	24 scholars,	26 × 21 clear,	6 feet hall,	3 rows of desks.
"No. 1.		30	" 29 × 21	" " "	"
		36	" 32 × 21	" " "	"

"No. 2, 46 " 35 × 26 " 8 feet hall, with single desks at sides, and three rows of graded desks in centre.

"No 3. 56 scholars, 40 × 27 clear, with class-room.

* NOTE. - The School law in Nova Scotia is identical with our Regulations on this subject—that for every fifty pupils there shall be an assistant teacher. Referring to this provision, Dr. Fraser, (Bishop of Manchester,) in his Report says:—"It is generally agreed in America that 50 scholars is the maximum number that can safely be committed to one teacher, though in carefully graded schools teachers are frequently found in charge of more."

"Adding 2 feet 9 inches to the length for every additional row of desks. Where the number of scholars amount to upwards of fifty, there should be a class-room attached.

"Plans of School-houses have been issued by the Council of Public Instruction, and the requirements of the Act are so explicit as to be a sufficient guide to Boards of Trustees."

5. In Prince Edward Island the law declares that, "Every School-house hereafter to be erected and used as such, within any district now or hereafter established under this Act, and not already contracted to be built, shall not be less in clear area than four hundred square feet, nor in the height of post than ten feet clear between the floor and ceiling, or be built nearer to the highway than ten yards."

6. In Victoria (Australia) no School receives aid from the Central Board unless the following (among other conditions) be complied with, viz:—"That in the new case of new buildings the School-room contain not less than eight square feet for each child in average attendance, and that the walls be not less than ten feet in height to the eaves; that in all cases the School-room be sufficiently warmed, ventilated and drained; that there be proper and separate offices for both sexes; that there be a play-ground attached, or other satisfactory provision made for physical exercise; and that the School be properly provided with the amount of school-furniture and apparatus, viz: desks, forms, blackboards, maps, books, &c., necessary for the efficient conduct of such School."

7. In South Australia "grants in aid are allowed towards the cost of building School-houses, to an amount not exceeding two hundred pounds for each School. The conditions to be observed in order to obtain this assistance are, that a declaration must be made by the trustees that the building for which the grant is conceded shall be used for Public School purposes, and no other, without our written assent; that the area shall not be less than 600 square feet; that the building shall be substantially constructed, and composed of good material; and that it shall be properly furnished with the usual appliances for teaching."

"Approved plans and specifications for the building of District School-houses are supplied by us for the guidance of the promoters; but a departure from the plans is allowed if sufficient reason be shown for it."

8. In Sweden a piece of land, from one to twelve acres, is attached to each School for the benefit of the teacher and the pupils. In 1867, the number of Schools possessing such a piece of land for working was 2,016. In Norway the School Districts must, in addition to salary, furnish the teacher with a dwelling-house, with land enough to pasture at least two cows, and lay out a small garden.

VII.—SUPERSEDING SCHOOL SECTION DIVISIONS, AND ESTABLISHING TOWNSHIP BOARDS OF EDUCATION.

Ever since 1850, there has been a provision in the School Acts for the establishment of Township Boards, as contained in the thirty-second section of the Consolidated School Act; but by the unfortunate wording of that section, no such Board could be established without a majority of votes in every single School section of the township. It has occurred that out of twenty School Sections in a township, the majority of the rate-payers in nineteen of them voted for the establishment of a Township Board, but the majority in one section voted against it, and thus defeated the wishes of the nineteen-twentieths of the rate-payers. Under these circumstances, the thirty-second section of the School Act has remained a dead letter for twenty years, and no fair means have existed as yet to give it a trial, though a large majority of the County School Conventions, on two occasions, have voted to do so. It is therefore proposed in the Act to leave it to the municipal council of each township, when the circumstances and opinions of competent persons in any township may render it desirable to form such township into one School municipality, under one Board of Trustees, as is the case in cities, towns and villages, doing away with the inconvenience of separate School section divisions and rates, and leaving parents to send their children to the nearest School.

TOWNSHIP BOARDS IN VARIOUS AMERICAN STATES.

1. After long trying the School section system, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Iowa,

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Wisconsin and other States, have adopted the Township Board system, and pronounce it immensely superior to the School section system. In the State of New York, a compromise system is authorized by the School law; that is, one or more districts (school sections) can "either severally or jointly resolve themselves into Union Free School districts, with Boards of Education, having authority to grade and classify the Schools under their charge." From the report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction for 1870 we learn that there are now 250 such united districts in the State; of them he says: "Having had frequent occasion to examine the provisions of this law (*i. e.* the "Union Free School Act"), and being somewhat familiar with its workings, I am of the opinion that it is the best School system yet devised for all localities where the number of scholars, as in villages, is sufficient to admit of a thorough classification." Dr. Fraser, in his Report to the English Commissioners, says:—"In the State of New York, Union Schools [or united sections] appear to be the most popular and flourishing of all the rural Schools." In this Province, the township council, if the experiment should not prove satisfactory, can at any time, repeal its own by-law establishing such Board.

2. The Secretary to the State Board of Education in Connecticut, thus graphically illustrates the comparative effects of the adoption of the Township over the School Section system in that State. In order to understand the facts as stated, we have found it necessary to change the words "town" to *township*, and "district" to *School Section*, where they occur.

"The tendency to manage Schools Township-wise, is growing. More Townships united their School Sections last year than in any former one. *Once united they stay so.*" "At least there is no instance where a Township has taken this step and after grading any of its Schools, gone back to the School Section plan. Let public sentiment advance as it has done for five years, and the School Section system will soon be abandoned.—" "Nearly all the friction in the Free School plan comes from the difficulty in getting the new engine to gear with the rusty cog-wheels of the old and worn out machine. They make poor partners as would the locomotive and the "one-horse shay." The people are fast learning the economy and efficiency of the Township system. They see that it favours the wise expenditure of the public money, gains better and more permanent teachers, longer schools, and helps the poorer and outlying School Sections. The Township system too lessens the frequency of tax assessments and collections. Many a house is going to decay because the funds requisite for such purposes would necessitate a Section tax. The expense of the assessment and collection of such a tax makes too large a share of the tax itself. In most of the Sections the amounts thus provided were very small. So small that it would have been wiser and more economical for the Township to pay the bills. * * * Facts on this subject are better than theories, I have, therefore, requested one of the School visitors of Branford, to describe the effects of the change in that Township. His published letter shows what they did, how they did it, what they gained by it, and why they voted almost unanimously '*not to go back.*' It will be seen that prior to the union there was much ill-feeling in regard to School matters, that the discipline was deplorable, average attendance low, and the teachers changed generally every term; under the new system the people are better satisfied.—" "School Committee and Teachers more permanent, Schools graded, terms lengthened, the motion made at the last annual meeting to reduce the School year from forty to thirty weeks, not receiving a single vote. The average attendance has improved twenty-five per cent. Scholarship wonderfully improved—one hundred per cent better than it was four years ago."

3. The late Horace Mann, so noted for his enlightened views on education, deprecating the District or School Section system, says:—"I consider the law authorizing Townships to divide themselves into [School Sections] *the most unfortunate on the subject of Common Schools ever enacted in the State [of Massachusetts].* In this opinion, ex-Governor Boutwell and the eminent educationist of the same State, concurs and hopes, that the day will speedily be seen when every township in its municipal capacity will manage its schools and equalize the expenses of education."

VIII.—AUTHORIZING THE ESTABLISHMENT OF INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.

Although the School Law of 1850 authorized Boards of Trustees in cities, towns and villages, to establish "any kind or description of Schools" they might see fit, yet it was regarded as doubtful whether it was sufficiently comprehensive to admit the establishment of Industrial Schools. To remove this doubt, and to give effect to the wishes of many interested in the condition of the "street arabs" of our cities, towns and villages, the section of the Act authorizing the establishment of these Schools was passed, as follows:—"42. The Public School Board of each city, town and village may establish one or more Industrial Schools for otherwise neglected children, and to make all needful regulations and employ the means requisite to secure the attendance of such children, and for the support, management and discipline of such School or Schools." The third section of the Act also provides, "that refractory pupils may be, where practicable, removed to an Industrial School."

IX.—SEPARATE COURSE OF STUDY FOR THE HIGH SCHOOLS.

1. One important object of the new law was to discriminate, by a clearly defined line in the course of study, between Public and High Schools, and to prescribe a separate programme of studies for High Schools. In practice it had been found that, in the anxiety of Trustees and masters of a majority of our Grammar Schools to crowd children into the Grammar Schools, in the fallacious hope thereby to increase the grant to their Schools, they had virtually merged the Grammar into the Common School, with the nominal addition in most cases of only a little Latin and Greek. The object of the High School sections of the new Act is to put an end to this anomalous state of things, and to prescribe for each class of Schools its own legitimate work. By means of the now increased inspection of the High Schools, and the improved inspection of the Public Schools, we hope to see the work prescribed by the respective Programmes of study faithfully performed by each.

2. In point of fact, the Grammar Schools have never occupied the position which they ought to have done in the country. They were originally designed to be Classical Schools, but they were made the Schools of certain classes, rather than Classical Schools, wholly doing, or professing to do, Common School work for certain classes—thus being made and viewed as a kind of aristocratic schools, poaching upon the ground of Common School work, and being regarded as distinct from, and even antagonist to, the Common Schools, rather than supplementary to them and identical with them in the public interests. It has, therefore, been found extremely difficult to get any considerable support for them from local sources. To get support enough to exist, more than two-thirds of the Grammar School Boards have had to seek amalgamation with the Common School Boards of their localities; but this amalgamation is attended with many inconveniences and does not by any means accomplish the objects proposed. Nevertheless, it has not been deemed expedient to interfere with this amalgamation in any way, but to leave the Boards of Trustees as formerly to unite, or, when united, to dissolve the union at their pleasure. The necessity for the union does not now exist as before, since the Legislature has in effect declared that High Schools shall be provided for by local rate equally with Public Schools. It should be remembered, however, that the experience of the great cities in the neighbouring States shows, that consolidating all the Public Schools in cities and towns under one Board of Management, and that Board elected chiefly by the ratepayers, has contributed even more to the efficient support and elevation of the classical School than to that of the Public Schools.

3. In the programme of study for High Schools, prescribed under the new Act, it is especially provided that they shall be High English Schools as well as Elementary Classical Schools, and for girls as well as for boys. When it is provided in the Act that in each High School, "provision shall be made for teaching to both male and female pupils the higher branches of an English and Commercial Education, including the Natural Sciences, with special reference to Agriculture," it was clearly intended that the lower or elementary branches of an English education should not be taught in the High Schools, but in the Public Schools. It was also intended that all pupils to be eligible for admission to

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the High Schools for the study of classics, as well as for higher English, must first be grounded in the elements of a sound education in their own native language, as strongly urged by the latest Royal and Parliamentary Commission on Education in England, but strangely overlooked hitherto, as little boys six and seven years of age have been put to the study of ancient and foreign languages, and left to grow up to manhood without ever having been formally taught their native tongue, or the essential elements of a practical English education. This anomaly is provided against by the new Act in the future education of Canadian youth, at least so far as the Public High Schools are concerned, and the Council of Public Instruction has prescribed, that "the subjects of examination for admission to the High Schools shall be the same as those prescribed for the *first four classes* of the Public Schools." It will be seen from the explanatory remarks preceding the programme, that some subjects of the fourth class of the Public School programme are omitted in regard to pupil candidates for the *classical course* of the High School. The examination for admission to the High School must be *on paper*, and the examination papers with the answers are to be preserved for the examination of the High School Inspector, that he may not depend wholly on the individual examination of pupils as to whether the regulations have been duly observed in the examination and admission of pupils.

4. It is to be observed also, that though pupils are eligible for promotion from the Public to the High School, after passing a satisfactory examination in the subjects of the first four classes of the former, omitting Natural History, Chemistry and Botany, for it is quite at the option of the parents or guardians of pupils, whether they shall enter the High School or not before they complete the whole programme of studies in the Public Schools when they can enter an advanced class in the High School.

5. The fundamental principle of our system of Public Instruction is, that every youth, before proceeding to the subjects of a higher English or of a classical education, shall first be grounded in the elementary subjects of a Public School education. No candidates are, therefore, eligible for admission to the High Schools except those who have manifested proficiency in the subjects of the first four classes of the Public School programme, by passing a satisfactory examination.

6. The objects and duties of the High Schools are two fold :

First, commencing with pupils who (whether educated in either a public or private school) are qualified as above, the High Schools are intended to complete a good English education, by educating pupils not only for commercial, manufacturing and agricultural pursuits, but for fulfilling with efficiency, honour and usefulness, the duties of Municipal Councillors, Legislators, and various public offices in the service of the country.

The *Second* object and duty of the High Schools (commencing also with pupils qualified as above,) is to teach the languages of Greece and Rome, of Germany and France, the Mathematics, &c., so far as to prepare youth for certain professions, and especially for the Universities, where will be completed the education of men for the learned professions, and for the Professorships in the Colleges, and Masterships in the Collegiate Institute and High Schools.

X.—COLLEGIATE INSTITUTES, OR LOCAL COLLEGES.

The High Schools having of necessity been thrown open to girls, and provision having been made in them for giving a purely English education apart from Classics, it was thought desirable to prevent the possible extinction in our Educational system of a purely Classical School which should serve as a proper link between the Public School and the University. With this view, a provision was introduced into the High School portion of the Act authorizing the establishment of Collegiate Institutes, and fixing the minimum standard to be reached, by any High School—the Trustees of which desired it to be recognized as a Collegiate Institute. This standard is the daily average attendance of at least sixty boys in Greek and Latin, and the employment, bona fide, of at least four masters who shall devote the whole of their time to the work of instruction in the Institute. The standard fixed is not an ideal one, but has already been surpassed by more than one of our existing High Schools. It is hoped that the establishment throughout the country of local colleges of the comparatively high standard which such institutions must reach and

maintain, in order to be recognized as such, will be a great and substantial boon to the country, and will promote in the highest degree the best interests of superior education throughout the Province.

THE STUDY OF LATIN IN COLLEGIATE INSTITUTES.

Among the many reasons which justify the provision in the new School Act, requiring an absolute daily average attendance in Collegiate Institutes of at least sixty boys in Greek and Latin, are the following which we have quoted, with the recommendations of the English Royal Commissions on the subject. In their Report of 1868 they say:—

"All the masters examined by us appear to be agreed that nothing teaches English grammar so easily or so well as Latin grammar, and next to that they would place the teaching of some other foreign grammar, such as French. The preference is given to Latin for many reasons. There is something, no doubt, in the beauty of the language itself. But the chief stress is laid on the fulness and precision of its accidence, in which no modern language can rival it. Further, it has entered so largely into English, that the meaning of a very large proportion of our words is first discovered to us on learning Latin. And to a no less degree has it entered into English literature, so that many of our classical writers are only half intelligible unless some knowledge of Latin precede the reading. Latin again is a common gateway to French, Italian and Spanish. Some teachers even maintain that French can be taught more easily in company with Latin, than by giving all the time to French alone." * * *

In order to give force and weight to their opinions, the Commissioners state that:—

"The witnesses whom we examined on this question may be divided into three classes:—1. Schoolmasters who spoke from their own experience. 2. Professional men, who described the general education which they thought necessary as a preparation for their own professions. 3. Managers and promoters of Schools and others, who for different reasons had taken an interest in education, and had bestowed some thought on the subject."

The following is an analysis of the opinions of these three classes of witnesses:—

1st class.—"The Schoolmasters were almost unanimous in regarding Latin as their chief educational instrument."

2nd class.—"The representatives of the different professions, though by no means so earnest in their opinions as the Schoolmasters, still, on the whole, came to the same result. Lawyers, medical men, farmers, engineers, agreed in wishing that a certain amount of Latin should form a part of the preliminary education for their several occupations."

3rd class.—"There was not the same unanimity among those whose acquaintance with the subject was not quite so directly practical, but the opinions expressed by some of these gentlemen require special notice." * * *

OPINIONS IN FAVOUR OF ENGLISH VERSUS LATIN.

The Commissioners say:—"Great weight is undoubtedly due to these latter opinions, and to the arguments used in support of them. The beauty of English literature; its power to cultivate and refine the learners; the fact that French and German children were carefully instructed in their respective languages; the example of the classic nations themselves, who certainly studied their own great writers; these, and other similar arguments, were urged upon us with great force."

"Professor Seeley went still further than the other three. He was speaking chiefly of education of the second grade, [such as are High Schools,] and in that education he wished to substitute English for Latin, and exclude Latin altogether. But he means by English not grammar, but rather rhetoric. 'English,' he says, 'ought not to be taught to boys as a language, but as their language; not curiously and scientifically, but artistically, practically, rhetorically. The object is to train boys in their gift of speech, to teach them to use it more freely, more skilfully, more precisely, and to admire and

"to enjoy it more when it is nobly used by great authors. The merely grammatical part should therefore be passed over lightly, the antiquarian part might be omitted altogether, the principal stress should be laid on composition." "Precision, accuracy, and solidity," he would avowedly make secondary, and aim rather at "brilliance and elegance." It may be admitted that Professor Seeley has rightly defined the true purpose of teaching English literature; but as Mr. Derwent Coleridge points out with much force, "to teach English as a study is a far more rare and difficult accomplishment than to teach Latin; and that for one man who can take a play of Shakespeare, or "Paradise Lost," as a class book, there are ten who can carry boys very respectfully through "Caesar and Virgil, whether regard be had to the language or the subject matter." "A practical view," he continues, "must be taken of the question. The English classics must be read, and will help of themselves to educate the reader; but a scholarly acquaintance with the English language, of the humblest kind, can be most quickly, as well as most thoroughly, gained through the medium of Latin." * * *

"In particular, Mr. Goldwin Smith urged the necessity of maintaining such a connexion, as in his judgment a powerful argument in favour of basing education generally upon Latin." * * *

"The best mode of dealing with Latin is probably not far from that suggested by Mr. Fearon. If boys were not allowed to begin Latin till the elements of an English education were thoroughly secured, if it were then kept within such limits as not to encroach on other subjects, but give them aid, it would probably have its full educational value at the time, and prepare the way for a higher grade of education afterwards, if a higher grade were intended." * * *

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE ENGLISH COMMISSIONERS.

"The conclusions to which we were brought by a review of the opinions put before us in regard to the subjects of instruction are strongly confirmed by the experience of those countries that have been most successful in the management of education. Everywhere we find the classics still regarded as the best instrument now to be obtained for the highest education, and when the classics are neglected, the education seems to be lowered in character. But we see also that two important modifications must be made in this general statement.

"One is, that the time given to classics must be so far curtailed, if necessary, as to admit of other important studies by their side. France curtails the study of Greek for this purpose; Prussia the practice of composition; but neither gives up the classics in her highest education, nor Latin even in what ranks much below the highest. The Scotch parents, who can choose at their own discretion, still make Latin the staple of instruction, while they are not content with Latin only. Even Zurich, with a decided leaning to industrial education, has a large proportion of scholars in classical schools. But all these countries appear to stand above us in the teaching of every subject except the classics, and England is quite alone in requiring no systematic study of the mother tongue.

"The other modification of the general rule in favour of classics is that room must be made for Schools of an altogether different type. There are minds fitted to be developed by other studies than that of the most perfect known languages. There are occupations for which classical studies do not give the proper preparation. Schools like the *Realschulen* of Prussia, or the Schools of Industry of Switzerland, have become a positive need of modern times."

XI.—SUPPORT EQUALLY OF THE HIGH AND PUBLIC SCHOOLS BY MUNICIPAL COUNCILS.

The School Law of 1871 at length embodies a principle for which I had contended for years. In submitting the first draft of Bill in 1854, for the improvement of our Grammar Schools, I sought to get inserted in it a recognition of the principle—which has at length been conceded—that it was the duty of the County or other Municipal Councils, to provide by rate upon property for the support of the Grammar School equally with the

Common School. Experience has shown how utterly impossible it was to maintain a good Grammar School without Municipal aid, in addition to the Legislative grant. The history of our Grammar Schools since 1854 has (with some honourable exceptions) been a chronicle of failures, owing chiefly to want of means to employ a sufficient number of teachers, and to prevent the wholesale thrusting into them of a number of ill-qualified children, in the vain hope of thereby increasing the Government grant. The obvious fact was overlooked that if one School resorted to this improper means of swelling its average attendance, another would do the same. Thus in the race for numbers the quality deteriorated, and the ratio of apportionment to each school was largely reduced. This was the case, especially as regards the better class of schools, which did not resort to this questionable means of obtaining, as was hoped, an increased grant, but which were made to suffer severely by this unjust competition. Happily the motive for a continuance of this unfortunate state of things has been entirely removed, and the Councils are now authorized and required by law to provide all necessary means for carrying on our High Schools in a state of efficiency. I have no doubt that the High School sections of the Act will inaugurate a new and auspicious era in the higher English and commercial, as well as elementary classical education of the country, in regard to both sexes of our youthful population.

XII.—THE NEW PRINCIPLE OF "PAYMENT BY RESULTS."

Our School Law of 1871 has introduced a new principle into the mode of payments to High Schools. Formerly the system adopted was (as in the case of Public Schools,) to distribute the High School Fund on the basis of average attendance of the pupils at the school. This was found to work injuriously to the best class of schools. For instance, a very inferior school with an average attendance, say, of fifty, would be entitled to receive precisely the same apportionment as another school with the same attendance, but which might be greatly superior,—if not the very best school in the Province. To remedy this defect and remove this injustice, a new principle of payment was introduced into the Act—viz: the payment, (as it is technically termed in England) "*by results*," or, as in the words of the Act itself, according to "proficiency in the various branches of study." This principle has been for years strictly applied to Elementary Schools in England, and it is now extended to other classes of schools. The thoroughness of the system of inspection adopted there has enabled the school authorities to do so. We shall not be able at present to go further than the High Schools with the application of this principle; but we trust that by and by if it be found to work well in the High Schools, we shall be able to apply it to the Public Schools as well.

In Victoria, (Australia,) "payment by results," to the schools, is the system adopted. In the last report of the Board of Education for that country published this year, the Board says: "The system of 'payment by results,' now in use, appears to be working well, and "to give general satisfaction. The fact, that at each emanation, each school's force is "recorded as having gained a certain percentage of a possible maximum, affords a means "of comparison between different schools which, if not conclusive as to their relative "merits, is sufficiently so to cause considerable emulation amongst teachers. Indeed, the "wish to obtain a high percentage, materially increases the stimulus afforded by the "result payments."

The three-fold principle upon which High Schools are hereafter to be aided, is declared by the new law to be as follows:

"Each High School conducted according to law [and the regulations,] shall be entitled to an apportionment * * * according—

First—"To the average attendance of pupils.

Second—"Their proficiency in the various branches of study.

Third—"The length of time each such High School is kept open as compared with "other High Schools."

With the aid of the additional Inspector of High Schools, the Department will be enabled to obtain the information required, which will enable it to give effect to the new and equitable system of apportionment.

XIII.—MORE THOROUGH AND SYSTEMATIC INSPECTION OF THE SCHOOLS.

It has been well said by Dr. Fraser, the present Bishop of Manchester, that *inspection is the salt of elementary education*. He goes on to insist upon its application to the higher schools of England, and says: "The publicity with which 'all material facts' relating to each school 'are annually made known to the State,' through the machinery of the Board of Education, is considered in Massachusetts to be the secret of the immense progress that has taken place in education in that commonwealth in the last 30 years."

EXAMPLES AND WARNINGS OF OTHER COUNTRIES.

1. In all educating countries, the *thorough inspection* of schools is regarded as *essential* to their efficiency and improvement; and this cannot be done except by men who are competent to *teach* the schools themselves. The want of practical and *thorough inspection* has undoubtedly been a serious impediment to any improvement in the schools in many parts of the Province; nor can any improvement be expected in the schools generally without an improved system of inspection. It is an anomaly in our school system, on which I have remarked more than once, that while a legal standard of qualification is prescribed for teachers of schools, no standard of qualification whatever had been prescribed for the Superintendents of teachers and schools. In the efforts which have hitherto been directed to organize the machinery of the School System, and to provide the apparatus necessary to render it effective, the people of the country have most nobly co-operated and done their part in bringing the whole system into efficient operation. But as long as the inspection of the schools was in the hands of men who were not paid or expected to devote their studies and time to the duties of their office, and who, for the most part, were not practical teachers, and who formed their standard of good schools and good teaching from what existed twenty or thirty years ago, and not from what the best schools have been made, and the improved methods of school organization, teaching and discipline which have been introduced during the present age, we could not expect any considerable improvement in the internal state and character of the schools, except from the improved character of the teachers, and in instances where regularly trained teachers, or teachers who have kept with the progress of the times, have been employed; and even they have been able to do little in comparison with what they might have done, had their hands been strengthened and their hearts encouraged by the example, counsel and influence of thoroughly competent Inspectors.

2. As to the felt necessity of a better system of School Inspection in Ontario, we have the testimony of the present Bishop of Manchester, who, in 1865, visited the Province, and made his Report to the English Commissioners upon our schools. He remarks:—

"Thorough inspection of schools, such as we are accustomed to in England, is a great desideratum both in the States and Canada (page 8). * * * Something like our English mode of inspection of schools, by a body of perfectly independent and competent gentlemen, would be a great and valuable addition to the school system both of the United States and Canada. * * * In fact, the great desideratum of the Common School system, both in Massachusetts and generally in the States, is adequate, thorough, impartial, independent inspection of schools. In New York and Pennsylvania, a system of supervision by counties or wide districts has been introduced, and is at work with tolerable success; but even here, the Superintendents (or Commissioners, as they are called in New York) appear, from their reports, to be more or less hampered by local prejudices and jealousies, and their salary is in part provided by the district which is the sphere of their labours. They are elected, too, in Pennsylvania, by the 'school directors' of the several townships; in New York, by the electors of the assembly districts, by ballot. A similar organization is strongly recommended by the Ohio State Commission. * * * The agent of the Massachusetts Board of Education, in a lecture, says:—'My observations, on visiting thousands of schools throughout Massachusetts, and many in twelve other States, have clearly proved to my mind the wisdom of maintaining a Superintendent in all our cities and large townships, who shall devote his whole time to the care and improvement of the schools.'" (Page 25.) In discussing the defects in the 'Administration

of Schools in the United States, Dr. Fraser says: "The supreme control of schools is too absolutely in the hands of local administrators, with no absolute guarantee of competency. The inspection, even, of County Superintendents and Commissioners is often found to be nugatory and ineffective. Legal requirements are constantly ignored or evaded, and a properly authenticated and independent officer, like Her Majesty's Inspector of Schools among ourselves, armed with visitatorial powers, and with means provided for giving effect to his recommendations, appears to be the element wanting in the machinery of the system, to give it that balance which the complication of its parts requires." (Pages 61, 62.)

3. The English Commissioners, in their report of 1861, declare that,—

"The superiority of inspected schools may be stated as beyond dispute; and though this is partly attributable to inspected schools possessing an apparatus of trained teachers and pupil teachers, which in other schools is unknown, yet much is due to the activity and carefulness which are the results of a system of constant supervision. This is clearly expressed by Mr. Hare, who examined a large number of witnesses, and who assures us that 'on the beneficial effects of inspection, especially as carried on by Her Majesty's Inspectors, the agreement is more general than on any other subject. Nearly all consider it as a wholesome stimulus to all concerned—managers, parents, pupil-teachers, and scholars.'"

"The great advantages of inspection appear still more clearly, if we examine the opinions which have been sent to us from different parts of the country. Thus the Hon. and Rev. T. Best, after criticising as 'faulty' several details of the Government system of aid, speaks thus:—"Having dwelt thus long on the deficiencies of the system, let me make amends in a single sentence. The schools under Government inspection are, as a rule, 'the only good schools in the country, and we cannot too highly appreciate the assistance the system renders and has rendered.'"

"We have strong testimony to the marked superiority of inspected over uninspected schools, and to the stimulus which inspection supplies, subject to the remark that the Inspectors often lead the teachers to dwell on matters of memory, rather than of reasoning, and rather on details than on general principles, or on general results, and also subject to a further remark, as to the inconvenience of differences in the standards adopted by different Inspectors. As a remedy for these defects, we recommend the appointment by the Committee of Council of one or more Inspectors General, whose duty it shall be to superintend the Inspectors, to notice their deficiencies, and to correspond on the subject directly with the Committee of Council. We have found that while inspection quickens the intellectual activity, and raises the condition of the whole school, the Inspectors are tempted to attend to the state of the upper, more than of the junior, classes in schools, and to estimate the whole school accordingly."

4. The English Commissioners, in their report of 1868, say:—

"Even the best masters will not do so well without this aid as with it. On the Continent all Schools that in any degree claim a public character, and sometimes even private schools, are required to submit to such a review of their work. In this country, inspection has been the most powerful instrument in the improvement of elementary education. * * * Inspection is necessary to prevent waste, to secure efficiency, to prepare the way for improvement. The regulations for examination should be governed by two principles. One is that the examination should not be competitive, but a fair test of average work. It should, as far as possible, follow the Prussian rule, and be such as a scholar of fair ability and proper diligence may, toward the end of his school course, come to with a quiet mind and without a painful effort."

5. Our American neighbours have thoroughly tried the systems of both Township and County Superintendents. The State Commissioner of Schools in Ohio says: "Our system of township supervision of schools has proved a lamentable failure. Similar systems in other States have uniformly failed. Any system of supervision for the country schools must necessarily fail, that does not make provision for the employment of competent Superintendents, whose entire energies are given to the work." The value of local supervision, through the agency of competent County Superintendents, has been tested in other

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States. Pennsylvania adopted the system in 1854, New York in 1856, Illinois, Wisconsin, Maryland, West Virginia, California, and several other States subsequently; and the testimony from each of them is, that it has proved a most valuable feature of their School System. The Superintendent of Public Instruction in Pennsylvania says: "County Superintendents were first elected in this State in 1854, and it is not claiming too much for the office to say that it has vitalized the whole system. To it, more than to any other agency, or to all other agencies combined, we owe our educational progress of late years." I may observe that more than four-fifths of the County School Conventions held in the several counties of this Province two years since, desired duly qualified County Superintendents in place of Township Superintendents.

6. The travelling agent of the Board of Education for the State of Massachusetts uses the following forcible language in regard to this matter:—

"It has been said, and with great truthfulness, that 'the most important branch of administration, as connected with education, relates to school inspection.' It is asserted by some careful observers, that the Dutch schoolmasters are decidedly superior to the Prussian, notwithstanding the numerous Normal Schools of Prussia, and the two or three only in Holland; and this superiority is attributed entirely to a better system of inspection. *This is the basis on which the whole fabric of their popular instruction rests.* The absence of such a thorough supervision of schools as is maintained in Holland with such admirable results, is the weakest part of our system.

"What is needed for all our schools, and what is essential to their highest efficiency, is a constant, thorough, intelligent, impartial and independent supervision. Comparatively few persons possess the varied qualifications so indispensable to success in this delicate and important work. So important was it regarded by the distinguished author of the Dutch system of inspection, that, after a long life devoted to educational labour, he said, 'Take care how you choose your Inspectors; they are men whom you ought to look for with a lantern in hand.'

"A school," says Everett, 'is not a clock, which you can wind up, and then leave it to go of itself. Nor can other interests be thus neglected. Our railroads and factories require some directing, controlling, and constantly supervising mind for their highest efficiency, and do not our schools need the same? To meet this great want, eleven of the fifteen cities of our State, and numerous large towns, have availed themselves of the provision of the Statute, and elected School Superintendents who devote their whole time and energies to this work of supervision. I have visited all, or nearly all, these towns and cities, and several of them frequently, and can bear my decided testimony to the great benefit that has resulted to their schools in consequence.'

SPIRIT IN WHICH INSPECTION SHOULD BE PERFORMED.

The regulations in regard to inspection, which have been adopted by the Council of Public Instruction, are sufficiently explicit as to the general details of inspection, and the mode in which it should be conducted. I will, therefore, only repeat here what I wrote on this subject in 1846 and 1850, when our present system of education was inaugurated. I said:

"To perform the duty of Inspector with any degree of efficiency, the Inspector should be acquainted with the best modes of teaching every department of an English school, and be able to explain and exemplify them. It is, of course, the Inspector's duty to witness the modes of teaching adopted by the teacher, but he should do something more. He should, some part of the time, be an actor as well as spectator. To do so he must keep pace with the progress of the science of teaching. Every man who has to do with schools, ought to make himself master of the best modes of conducting them in all the details of arrangement, instruction, and discipline. A man commits a wrong against teachers, against children, and against the interests of school education, who seeks the office of Inspector without being qualified and able to fulfil all its functions. In respect to the manner of performing the visitatorial part of the Inspector's duties, I repeat the suggestions which I made in my circular to local Superintendents of Schools, in December, 1846. They are as follows:

"Your own inspection of the schools must be chiefly relied upon as the basis of your judgment, and the source of your information, as to the character and methods of school instruction, discipline, management, accommodations, &c.: and on this subject, we ought not to content ourselves with exterior and general facts. * * * But it is not of less importance to know the interior regime of the schools—the aptitude, the zeal, the deportment of the teachers—their relations with the pupils, the trustees and the neighbourhood—the progress and attainments of the pupils, and, in a word, the whole moral and social character and results of the instruction given, as far as can be ascertained. Such information cannot be acquired from reports and statistical tables; it can only be obtained by special visits, and by personal conversation and observation—by an examination of the several classes, in their different branches of study; so as to enable you to ascertain the degree and efficiency of the instruction imparted."

THE GREAT VALUE OF INSPECTION TO PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

"The importance of the question of Public School inspection" (remarks the *English Journal of Education*) "is much broader and deeper than at first sight appears. The history of that laborious transition which has occurred, first, from contented ignorance to discontent with ignorance, and then to strivings after intelligence, and attempts at education, fructifying in a very general effort to make schools efficient, discloses to the practical observer, one gangrenous obstacle attaching to the whole progress of the movement, viz., a morbid desire to screen and palliate defects. We believe far less hindrance to education has arisen from the badness of schools, than from the folly of cloaking their badness. This jealousy of criticism has been exhibited greatly in proportion to the reputation of the school. It has always been found that an Inspector may, with much less chance of evoking the wrath of the managers, denounce a bad school in wholesale terms than he can insinuate a blemish, or hint a blot, in one which 'has a name.' It may be said that this is very natural, as no one likes the criticism of that which has obtained him credit, and ministered to his *amour propre*: but natural as this may be, it is not the less injurious to the progress of education. The very best school is capable of improvement; and as the real value of a school is generally overrated, and its defects are more easily veiled than those of any other object of equal importance, it is greatly to be lamented that this intolerance of criticism should pit itself against the obvious means of improvement which skilled inspection affords. We repeat, that if it stops short of a full and faithful exposure of every fault and defect in the matter and methods of instruction, it betrays its trust, and falls short of its imperative duty. So far from there being ground for complaint of the censoriousness of Inspectors of Schools, whether local or governmental, proofs abound that they far oftener sin in being too mealy-mouthed, and in winking at defects they deem it ungracious or impolitic to expose. Education is by no means in need of such delicate handling. It is far from being a flame easily extinguished by the breath of censorship. On the contrary, nothing tends more directly to feed and nourish it; and Inspectors who have the manliness to set their faces against shams and rote systems, and to 'develop' errors, as well as 'aims,' in their right light, are deserving of the hearty thanks and support of every man who wishes education to be a reality, and a thorough mind-training in the duties and subjects essential for practical life. There are two ways of inspecting schools; one is to praise the teachers and please the managers; the other is to benefit the scholars and improve the schools. It will but seldom happen that those two courses can coincide. The Inspector must usually take his choice between them, and according to it is he worthy or unworthy of his office. We are no advocates of undue harshness, or a spirit of fault finding. He who takes pleasure in blaming, or who fails to apply just censure in kindly or Christian terms, is just as wrong as he who, from false lenience or truckling servility, praises where he ought to blame, or 'winks at faults he trembles to chastise.'

"We firmly believe that the progress of sound teaching is just now more entirely in the hands, and contingent on the faithfulness and courage of Inspectors of Schools, than any other human agency. None, so well as professional and experienced examiners, can detect glosses, extinguish effete systems, substitute right ones, or invert the pyramid now tottering on its apex. Those who, chafing under the wholesome correction of their own

schools, absorbed by the sense of personal grievance, and forgetting what is due to the great behests and eternal aims of education, rail at the remedy, and attack the physician instead of the disease, are the real obstructives to the cause of sound secular and availing religious instruction."

XIV.—MISCELLANEOUS PROVISIONS OF THE NEW SCHOOL ACT.

Among the miscellaneous provisions of the new School Act, we may enumerate the following:—

1. Section 16 authorizes Trustees, or any five ratepayers, to appeal to the County Council against the act, past or present, of a Township Council, in forming or altering their school section.
2. The 17th section of the new School Law provides a remedy for difficulties which have been experienced in many School sections in obtaining a site for a School-house. This provision is a simplification of what is provided by law, in similar cases, in laying out public highways. A corresponding provision exists in the new School Law of England, and the laws of Quebec, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Hampshire and elsewhere.
3. Section 20 authorizes Trustees to erect a teacher's residence, if they desire to do so.
4. Section 22 authorizes a Trustee, equally with their Secretary, to call School Trustees' meetings.
5. Sections 25 and 26 relate to the enlarged powers conferred upon Arbitrators under the School Law; and section 27 abolishes arbitrations between Trustees and Teachers in regard to salary, &c.
6. Section 28 remedies a defect in the provision of the law in regard to appeals by the Chief Superintendent against the decisions of County Judges in School matters.
7. Section 29 declares that the summer vacations in the Public Schools shall be one month, from the 15th of July to the 15th of August, both inclusive; and section 44 declares that the summer vacations in High Schools shall be from the 1st of July to the 15th of August, inclusive.
8. Section 30 remedies several defects, and supplies some omissions in the School Law. It facilitates the recovery of fines; enlarges the powers of school collectors; restores to the outgoing Trustee (after the 1st of October in each year) all the powers of which the School Law of 1860 deprived him. He has now equal authority with the other Trustees to engage teachers, &c. The section also prevents Trustees from giving orders to teachers who are not legally qualified; authorizes the Township Council to correct mistakes in the school assessor's roll; (Note.—The 18th section authorizes the Reeve and School Inspectors to equalize every year the assessments of union school sections.) The section further directs the Inspector to apportion moneys to every school section within his jurisdiction, whether a school is kept open in it or not. The object of this provision is,—1st. Not to allow a section to suffer a loss of its grant in case the Trustee's report should fail, from error or carelessness, or other cause, to reach the Inspector. 2nd. To determine the amount for which Trustees are personally responsible, and for which they can be sued, should they fail to keep open their school during the whole year.
9. Section 31 declares that the Municipal or Assessment Act, or any amendments to them, which shall be in force at the time anything is done under their authority, shall govern trustees, collectors, and other school officers.
10. Section 37 declares that no Public or High School shall be entitled to share in the fund applicable to it, unless conducted according to the regulations provided by law.
11. Public School Trustees, equally with their Secretary-Treasurer, are now made personally responsible (section 46) for their "neglect or refusal to account for, or deliver up, when called upon by competent authority to do so" * * * "all school moneys or school property" which may have come into their hands. They are also required "to exact security from every person to whom they may entrust school money, or other school property, and deposit such security with the Township Council for safe keeping." Failing to do so, they become personally responsible for any loss which may occur in consequence. (Sections 23 and 46.) Section 21 relates to Public School section accounts, and section 45 to the audit of the High School accounts.

CONCLUSION.

I have thus, as your Excellency will perceive, entered somewhat fully into an exposition and justification of the various new features of our system of Public Instruction, which have been embodied in the "School Law Improvement Act of 1871." I have felt it the more necessary to furnish, once for all, in this report, the many friends of our School System with the facts and reasonings illustrative of the necessity for the recent changes in our law, which influenced me in endeavouring to embody in our School Law, certain great principles which underlie and are common to every really comprehensive system of National Education. In fact, no intelligent person can carefully read over the extracts which I have given of the views and proceedings of educationists in other countries without coming to the conclusion, that, to have done less than we have done, would be to place this Province in the rear rather than abreast of other educating countries. They would have felt that I should have been recreant to my duty had I failed to strongly press upon the Government and Legislature, the necessity of giving their highest sanction to the recommendations which I had made with a view to improve the School Law of this Province—recommendations which were founded (as I have shown in this Report) upon the knowledge and experience of the most accomplished educationists of the present day.

After twenty-seven years' service in promoting what I believed to be the best interests of our School System, I am more than ever profoundly impressed with the conviction of the correctness of the views on these subjects which I expressed in my preliminary *Report on a System of Public Instruction for Upper Canada*, which I submitted to the Government in 1846. It has been the purpose and aim of my life, since I assumed the direction of the Education Department, to give practical effect to these views, and with the Divine favour, to secure and perpetuate to my native country, the inestimable blessings of a free, comprehensive, Christian education for every child in the land.

I have the honour to be,

Your Excellency's obedient, humble servant,

E. RYERSON.

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
Toronto, October, 1871.